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Enacting and Refining Critical Teaching: A Multi-Case Study on Criminology/Criminal Justice Professors

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Enacting and Refining Critical Teaching: A Multi-Case Study on Criminology/Criminal Justice

Professors

Joshua Abreu, PhD

University of Connecticut, 2020

This multi-case study centers on how Criminology/Criminal Justice (CCJ) professors enact and refine a teaching approach that helps students understand how practices from their field of study can reinforce systemic discrimination and its harmful consequences. These are practices that have disproportionately threatened the physical, emotional, and/or economic conditions of communities with limited socio-political power. This research is important because college instructors play an influential role in preparing and enhancing the country's workforce. Thus, if college instructors do not prepare students as critically-minded professionals, then students may reproduce practices that can lead to detrimental social, political, and economic outcomes for the country as a whole.

Given the importance of critical teaching in higher education, I specifically examined professors' beliefs, perceptions, and actions related to how they enacted and refined their critical teaching approach. I collected data from interviews, class observations, course materials, and student focus groups and interviews. With a conceptual framework grounded in faculty agency and critical teaching, I found professors in this study a) use the experiences of justice-involved people and practitioners to re-socialize students to have a "realistic" understanding of CCJ; b) have knowledge, dispositions, and resources that contribute to their experimental capacity with teaching; and c) increase student success when they enact instructional equity. This study suggests that college instructors can be catalysts to mitigating social inequities when they include subject-matter content on the people impacted by systemic discrimination, and instructional strategies that enable learning and persistence among students impacted the most by systemic discrimination.

Enacting and Refining Critical Teaching: A Multi-Case Study on Criminology/Criminal Justice

Professors

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A Dissertation

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

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2020

Approval Page

Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation

Enacting and Refining Critical Teaching: A Multi-Case Study on Criminology/Criminal Justice

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2020

Dedication

This work is dedicated to the Indigenous, Black, and immigrant folks who have helped build the Americas despite living in a social structure designed to dehumanize them. Their accomplishments and sacrifices have provided the blueprint for others to thrive and work towards social equity. It is an honor to be part of this community.

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First and foremost, I would like to thank my family whose emotional and financial support made this doctoral degree possible. Massiel, thank you for always believing in my potential. Sky, thank you for your sweet patience. Ma y Pa, thank you for instilling the value of hard work and a good education. Stephen, thank you for always being willing to share your expertise. And, thank you to everyone back home whose phone calls, emails, care packages, and DMs contributed to my growth.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	6
Purpose of the Study	9
Research Questions	9
Significance of the Study	9
Definitions of Terms	10
Summary of the Chapters	12
CHAPTER 2 – CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	14
Faculty Agency: Students’ Influence on Critical Teaching	14
Critical Curriculum	18
Faculty Learning	20
Instructional Equity	22
Active learning strategies	24
Impact of active learning strategies on student learning	25
Impact of active learning strategies on student persistence	27
Bloom’s Taxonomy of Questions	28
Chapter 2 Summary	31
CHAPTER 3 – METHODOLOGY	32
Researcher’s Subjectivity Statement	32
Study Design: Multi-Case Study	33
The Contexts: Hill State University & CCJ	35
The Cases: CCJ Professors	36
Recruiting the professors	37
The Study Participants: Drs. Sanders, Taylor and Park	39
Data Sources and Collection	41
Professor Interviews	42
Professors’ Curriculum Vitae (CVs)	43
Professors’ Syllabi	44
Course Materials	44
Class Observations	45
Student Focus Groups and Interviews	48
Focus group demographic questionnaire	50

Data Sample and Processing	50
Protection of Human Participants	51
Privacy and Confidentiality	52
Minimizing Risks to Participants	53
Data Analysis	54
Trustworthiness of Study	58
Credibility	59
Confirmability	60
Reliability	60
Study Limitations: Generalizability and Transferability	61
Chapter 3 Summary	62
CHAPTER 4 – FINDINGS	64
Claim #1: Professors Use the Experiences of Justice-involved People and Practitioners to (re)Socialize Students to Have a “Realistic” Understanding of CCJ	65
Teaching critically from a justice-involved and practitioner standpoint	67
Teaching critically with primary sources	70
Claim #2: Professors Have Knowledge, Dispositions, and Resources that Contribute to their Experimental Capacity in the Classroom	74
Knowledge of students’ academic needs	75
Disposition to adjust teaching to students’ academic needs	76
Collegial resources influencing experimentation	78
Departmental resources supporting experimentation	79
Claim #3: Professors increase student success when they enact instructional equity	81
Professors perceive small, frequent quizzes and assignments increased student success	82
Student Success Strategies & Question Types: Mostly Recall, Some Analysis	85
Dr. Taylor’s student success strategies: In-class quizzes & film worksheets	86
Dr. Sanders’ student success strategies: Journaling & quizzes	89
Dr. Park’s student success strategy: Mini in-class labs	91
Students’ views on student success strategies: I read more now	92
Chapter 4 Summary	95
CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSION	96
Discussion	97
Faculty Agency, the Classroom, and Students	98
Adjusting critical teaching to students’ disciplinary socialization	101
Learning to teach and experimental capacity	104
Practicing instructional equity to meet critical teaching goals	107

Implications for Future Research	110
Implications for Teaching Practices	111
Implications for Institutional Practices	113
Implications for Policy	115
Conclusion	116
REFERENCES	118
APPENDICES	132
Appendix A—Data Collection Timeline	132
Appendix B—Site Gatekeeper Letter of support	133
Appendix C—Recruitment Email to Professors	134
Appendix D—Email to Schedule First Interview	135
Appendix E—Informed Consent Form for Professors	136
Appendix F—Sample of Codebook	140
Appendix G—Interview Protocol 1 of 2	142
Appendix H—Data Sample	145
Appendix I—Classroom Observation Guide	147
Appendix J—Class Observation Informed Consent Form for Students	148
Appendix K—Student Focus Group Information Sheet	151
Appendix L—Email to Schedule Student Focus Group	154
Appendix M—Email to Confirm Student Focus Group Time and Location	155
Appendix N—Student Focus Group Consent Form	156
Appendix O—Student Focus Group Protocol	159
Appendix P—Student Demographic Questionnaire	161
Appendix Q—Interview protocol 2 of 2	162
Appendix R—Thank You Letter to Professors	165
Appendix S—CITI and NIH Certificates	166
Appendix T—Sample of reducing data into analytic statements	173
Appendix U—Chain of evidence	174
Appendix V—Dr. Sanders’ journal questions	176
LIST OF TABLES & FIGURES	
Table 1: Bloom’s Taxonomy of Questions	29
Table 2: Data sources informing the multi-case study	42
Table 3: Class observation memo	55
Table 4: Themes informing three claims	65
Table 5: Question types for Dr. Taylor’s weekly quizzes	86
Table 6: Dr. Taylor’s documentary worksheet question types	88

Table 7: Research questions	98
Table 8: Influence of student-body on professors' agency with critical teaching	100
Figure 1: Conceptual map of multi-case study design	35

Chapter 1

Introduction

In the United States, higher education has become central in preparing and enhancing the country's professional workforce. This integral relationship started after Congress passed the Morrill Act of 1862, which allocated public land for agricultural and mechanical colleges (Miller, 1993). The policy was largely responsible for advancing U.S. agricultural technology and practices (Miller, 1993; Benson & Hayward, 1993). Since then, colleges and universities have been key in supporting the workforce. Today, approximately 65 percent of U.S. jobs require applicants to have completed at least some higher education such as a certificate or an associate's degree (Carnevale & Rose, 2015). This is nearly a three-fold increase since the 1970s, which means various types of higher education institutions (e.g., technical, comprehensive, research) now play an instrumental role in developing the country's workforce (Carnevale, Garcia, & Gulish, 2017; Carnevale, Smith, & Strohl, 2010; Hirt, 2006). The classroom is one of the vital spaces where professional preparation for the workforce is occurring. College instructors, through their teaching, influence how the 20 million-plus college students conceptualize their respective professions (Carnevale & Rose, 2015; Hirt, 2006; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). That is, college instructors through what and how they teach help students gain knowledge and insights that can inform how they think about and carry out professional practices. This is especially true in applied fields such as education, law, nursing, social work, and criminal justice.

Research shows college instructors across different fields and institutions implement teaching practices that can enhance student learning (Campbell, Cabrera, Michel, & Pate, 2017; Castillo-Montoya, 2018; Nilson, 2016). This past research is important because it has uncovered course content (e.g., students' prior knowledge) and instructional strategies (e.g., active learning) that can help instructors meet their subject-matter teaching goals. However, there is limited research on instructors teaching students how they, through their professional

practices, can perpetuate a discriminatory system (e.g., racist) that causes a broad range of harm to certain populations. Furthermore, the current literature on applied disciplines primarily focuses on the subject-matter content that can help students develop critical perspectives, but it minimally covers the instructional strategies that can make critical teaching possible for instructors—particularly for instructors who teach historically-marginalized students (i.e., Black, Latinx, low-income) (Hayes, Luther, & Caringella, 2014). As such, this research centers on how professors enact and refine their critical teaching practices, which I define as the subject-matter content and instructional strategies that can enable instructors to teach their students about systemic discrimination within their field of study. With critical teaching, college instructors can help develop their students into critically-minded professionals, who I define as practitioners aware of the policies and practices that can sustain or mitigate systemic discrimination and its harmful impact on historically-marginalized populations. This area of research is important because we do know institutions rarely require courses on systemic discrimination or similar topics, which means students may be entering the workforce with a minimal understanding of social equity in relation to their profession (Frederick, 2012; Miley, Chang, & Antonio, 2005; Pattern & Way, 2011).

The lack of research and presence of critical teaching in higher education is concerning because students' interpretation, or understanding, of subject-matter concepts (e.g., policies) can inform their professional practices; thus, impacting broader society (Lipsky, 1980; Weick, 1995). Without a critical teaching of the subject matter, educators may position their students to reproduce professional practices that can harm the physical, emotional, and economic well-being of historically-marginalized communities (e.g., Black, Latinx, low-income) (Freire, 1970; Paris & Alim, 2017). Also, without a critical teaching of the subject matter, students who are committed to social equity may not learn the knowledge and/or skills necessary to view and perform their job in equitable ways (Campion & Esmail, 2016).

Given this gap in research on the relationship between critical teaching and the preparation of professionals entering the workforce, the purpose of this study was to understand how college educators enact and refine teaching practices that can help students develop as critically-minded professionals¹ (Bensimon, Dowd, & Witham, 2016). This research matters because the reproduction of discriminatory and harmful practices can manifest into civil unrest—threatening the country’s social, economic, and political stability (Piven & Cloward, 2012; Zinn, 2015). But, most importantly, this research also matters because it is irresponsible to not equip Black, Latinx, and low-income students with the knowledge and skills needed to engage in equitable practices and understand how they, through their professional capacity, can further perpetuate systemic harm onto their own historically-marginalized communities. This is particularly true in the field of criminal justice, which has seen an increase of practitioners in the last several decades as well as perpetuation of systemic discrimination as a bedrock in the field.

Professional Preparation of the Criminal Justice Workforce

In the 1960s, federal higher education policies focused on enhancing the knowledge and skills of criminal justice practitioners due to the Civil Rights movement against police brutality and the over-policing of Black communities (Carter & Sapp, 1999; Piven & Cloward, 2012). As a result of President Lyndon B. Johnson’s 1967 Commission of Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, higher education became an integral part of the criminal justice system (Carter & Sapp, 1990). The Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP) and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) provided funding for criminal justice practitioners who wanted to attend college. Consequently, there was an influx of criminal justice practitioners in higher education (Finckenauer, 2005). By 1974, police officers with college experience increased from 20 percent in 1960 to 47 percent (Carter & Sapp, 1991; NILECJ,

¹ The term “critically-minded professional” derives from Dr. Estela Bensimon’s scholarship on *equity-mindfulness* in higher education. My term differs in that Dr. Bensimon and fellow scholars center their work on instructors’ exertion of educational equity, whereas I focus on students learning to exert criticalness (i.e., equity) within their respective fields of study.

1978). Additionally, police officers with more than two years of college experience rose from 10 percent in 1960 to over 30 percent in 1974 (Carter & Sapp, 1990; NILECJ, 1978). By 2007, about 30 percent of all police officers in the U.S. possessed a four-year degree (Reaves, 2010).

To meet the workforce demands for college-educated practitioners, colleges and university administrators increasingly established criminal justice programs. As noted by Sloan (2019), colleges awarded 2,045 bachelor's degrees in criminal justice in 1970, and awarded nearly 63,000 in 2015. This was an increase of almost 3,000 percent. In comparison, the total amount of awarded bachelor's degrees across all disciplines increased 126 percent during that same timeframe (Sloan & Buchwalter, 2016). More recently, colleges and universities, on an annual basis, have awarded approximately 60,000 Bachelor's degrees, 35,000 Associate's degrees, and 7,500 Master's degrees in criminal justice, making it one of the most popular academic programs in higher education (Data USA, 2017; Sloan & Buchwalter, 2016).

Furthermore, criminal justice programs play an essential role in educating a large portion of historically-marginalized college students. A majority of criminal justice programs are located at "inclusive, urban" institutions where many students come from Black, Latinx, and low-income communities (Sloan & Buchwalter, 2016, p. 10). More specifically, in 2017, Latinx students represented 24 percent of criminal justice degree recipients, while Black students represented 17 percent of criminal justice degree recipients (Data USA, 2017). In comparison to another popular degree, psychology, Latinx and Black students represented 19.4 and 11.4 percent of psychology degree recipients, respectively (Data USA, 2017). Therefore, this study's focus on criminal justice teaching highlights practices that prepare critically-minded professionals, specifically professionals who come from communities most impacted by systemic discrimination and who are committed to social equity (Gabbidon, Penn, & Richards, 2003).

Systemic Discrimination in the Criminal Justice System

Given the popularity of criminal justice programs, particularly among Black, Latinx, and low-income students, criminal justice instructors can play a crucial role in mitigating social

inequities. Meaning, they can prepare students to be critically-minded practitioners, who are aware of discriminatory and harmful practices as well as more equitable ones (Barton et al., 2010; Freire, 1970). In the past 50 years, U.S. policymakers have increasingly relied on the criminal justice system to control and disenfranchise groups of people that have limited socio-political power (Barlow & Barlow, 1995; Rosino & Hugley, 2018). For instance, the U.S. makes up five percent of the world's population, but its criminal justice system incarcerates almost 25 percent of the world's prisoners, or 2.2 million individuals (US Executive Office of the President, 2016). An additional five million people in the U.S. are involved in other criminal justice services (e.g., probation) (Kaeble & Bonczar, 2016). While the policing and prosecution of some crimes may be necessary, the criminal justice system has disproportionately impacted Black, Latinx, and low-income communities (FBI, 2015; Obama, 2016; Travis, Western, & Redburn, 2014). More specifically, Black folks are five times more likely to be incarcerated than White people, and receive sentences that are 10 percent longer (Kutateladze & Andiloro, 2014; Nellis, 2016; Starr & Rehavi, 2014). Fines and court fees disproportionately affect poor people and often lead to jail time (Yates, 2015). Gender is also a significant factor in how individuals experience the system (DeKeseredy, 2011; FBI, 2015; Starr, 2012). Men receive harsher punishment than women for the same crime, while criminal justice administrators, educators, and researchers often overlook women's experiences (Kim & Hawkins, 2013; Starr, 2012).

In addition to racial-, gender-, and economic-based discrimination, people with mental illness are also over-represented in the criminal justice system (Kennedy-Hendricks et al., 2016). While 4 percent of the U.S. population have a serious mental illness (SMI), they represent approximately 14 percent of incarcerated individuals (Prins, 2014). Other researchers suggest the over-representation is around 25 percent (Binswanger et al., 2012). Simply put, the criminal justice system has been a catalyst for sustaining social inequities as involvement with the justice system can significantly impede one's socio-economic stability and overall well-being (Johnson & Abreu, 2019). Thus, the discriminatory outcomes of the criminal justice system can

have harmful consequences for some of the most oppressed social groups (e.g., Black, Latinx, low-income).

Statement of the Problem

The contemporary coverage on the discriminatory and harmful nature of the criminal justice system coupled with a persistent social movement have led to bipartisan criminal justice reform (Alexander, 2012; DuVernay & Barish, 2016; Obama, 2016; Stevenson, 2015). For example, New York lawmakers have changed bail policies—directing judges to now use non-monetary conditions such as electronic monitoring to ensure people who are accused of misdemeanors and non-violent offenses return to court (Bellware, 2020). However, much of the popular discourse on criminal justice reform has not focused on educational policies or practices. This lack of attention from policymakers, news outlets, and advocates is a problem because criminology/criminal justice (CCJ) has grown to be one of the most popular majors in the country—making criminal justice educators a central figure on how college students are socialized to think and behave as criminal justice practitioners (Sloan & Buckwalter, 2016).

While the criminal justice faculty is now a staple in higher education, we know little about how CCJ instructors develop students as critically-minded professionals. However, we do know instructors who integrate critical perspectives into their teaching can face a multitude of barriers inside the classroom (Broom & Brice, 2017; Gerkin & Kierkus, 2011; Patton & Catching, 2009). We also know CCJ students may be entering the field with limited knowledge about policies, and practices that can perpetuate social inequities (Frederick, 2012; Pattern & Way, 2011; Stacey, 2018). Additionally, research shows that a lack of critical perspectives can perpetuate discriminatory perceptions (Carrington, Donnermeyer & DeKeseredy, 2014; Lynch, McGurrin, & Fenwick, 2004). For instance, Bornstein, Charles, Domingo, and Solis, (2012) found that when students do not learn about race-based prejudices and systemic inequities, they are not mindful of the realities of racism, which can perpetuate inequities through their professional roles (Lipsky, 1980; Walters & Kremser, 2016; Weick, 1995).

Educational research shows there are numerous factors that can impact instructors' ability to meet their critical teaching goals. As noted by Zúñiga and Mildred (2005), "Faculty who analyze systems of power and inequality when teaching about women, racial-ethnic, and religious minorities and other historically-disadvantaged groups face significant challenges" (p. 1). For CCJ instructors, these challenges tend to fall into three areas: a) instructors' teaching preparedness, b) CCJ programs' plans of study, and c) students. In regards to instructors' teaching preparedness, CCJ instructors, and college instructors in general, receive little to no training in pedagogy and general teaching skills (Steinmetz, Schaefer, del Carmen, & Hemmens, 2014). Also, CCJ graduate programs rarely require courses on race, gender, and/or class; therefore, pre-service instructors are not necessarily exposed to critical perspectives prior to joining academia (Lytle & Travis III, 2008; Sever, Coram, & Meltzer, 2008; Steinmetz et al., 2014). When pre-service educators do receive diversity training, the training tends to reinforce ideals that can reproduce systemic discrimination (Castro, 2010; Sleeter, 2001). The reproduction of systemic discrimination also happens with K-12 pre-service teachers; thus, this study can also be helpful for other educational programs (Sleeter, 2001).

Additionally, the plans of study at most undergraduate CCJ programs do not include courses on critical perspectives. For instance, only 12-20 percent of undergraduate CCJ programs require a course on race, gender, and/or class (Frederick, 2012; Pattern & Way, 2011). Additionally, topics on race, gender, and class are either minimally covered in CCJ textbooks or portrayed in stereotypical ways (Eigenberg & Park, 2015; Martin, 2014; Sever, & Grillo, 2016). Thus, CCJ instructors may need to take strategic and intentional steps to locate resources on critical teaching and integrate them into their courses.

Lastly, students can also impact instructors' teaching. Instructors can face student resistance to their critical teaching, which can play out in silence, absences, underperformance, and/or verbal challenges (Taylor Greene, 2015). For instance, educators who teach critically have had their authority, competence, and expertise disproportionately, and at times, violently,

challenged-particularly by White male students (Brooms & Brice, 2017; Pittman, 2010). Further, students often direct their resistance towards women instructors and instructors from racially- and ethnically-marginalized groups (Gerkin & Kierkus, 2011; Patton & Catching, 2009). For CCJ educators, this form of student resistance can be particularly concerning given that White male students are over-represented in CCJ programs, and women and Black instructors can often be the only ones in a department to teach from a critical standpoint (Data USA, 2017; Taylor Greene, Gabbidon, & Wilson, 2018;).

Students' identities also inform their motivation to become CCJ students, which in turn, can influence instructors' teaching. For example, women and Black students enroll as CCJ students in hopes to help people and address oppression as CCJ professionals, whereas White CCJ students tend to want to arrest people who break the law and protect the constitution (Gabbidon et al., 2003; Krimmel & Tartaro, 1999; Tartatro & Krimmel, 2003). As such, White students' "law and order mentality" can make it difficult for CCJ educators to facilitate lessons that place a critical lens onto the criminal justice system (Gabbidon et al., 2003; Tartatro & Krimmel, 2003, p. 117). In addition to students resisting the critical content in the curriculum, student resistance can also be in response to educators' instructional practices. Meaning, students may under-perform or disengage because their instructor uses lectures, high-stake assignments, and other instructional practices that can position students as passive learners (Kinzie et al., 2008; Roksa & Whitley, 2017).

Despite these challenges, some instructors acknowledge the factors that can impact their teaching and adjust in order to meet their critical teaching goals. In this sense, CCJ educators can exert their agency to enact and refine a critical teaching approach that is accessible to the college students they frequently encounter and who are most affected by discriminatory and harmful CCJ practices (e.g., Black, Latinx, low-income). Yet, we know little about what CCJ educators do to develop and sustain this sort of pedagogical approach. Therefore, for this study, I explore CCJ instructors' agentic beliefs and actions undergirding their

critical teaching. I do recognize that critical teaching does not necessarily mean that these same instructors do not perpetuate other aspects of inequality. Educators may include culturally-sustaining content (e.g., hip-hop music), but reproduce other forms of prejudices embedded in the course content (e.g., homophobia) (Paris & Alim, 2014). Thus, for this research, I also account for the limits of instructors' critical teaching.

Purpose of Study

In all, higher education has limited research on how college faculty prepare their students as critically-minded professionals. Given the aforementioned importance of viewing one's profession through a critical lens, particularly applied fields like criminal justice, the purpose of this study is to examine CCJ professors' beliefs, perceptions, and actions that guided their critical teaching approach and understand how such approach potentially enabled their students to develop as critically-minded professionals. To understand CCJ professors' critical teaching practices, I draw on the concept of faculty agency, which suggests college educators have some control over meeting their professional goals despite the contextual barriers to critical teaching (O'Meara et al., 2011; Pittman, 2010; Shulman & Hutchings, 2004; Taylor Greene, 2015).

Research Questions

To study instructors critical teaching development, the following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the beliefs that influence CCJ instructors' critical subject-matter teaching?
 - a. How do these beliefs shape their teaching strategies?
2. How do CCJ instructors describe learning to teach in a critical way?
3. What instructional strategies do CCJ instructors describe as helping them achieve their critical teaching goals?

Significance of the Study

The study of critical teaching in higher education is important for multiple reasons. For one, institutions of higher education are instrumental in how students are socialized into their professions. Meaning, a large percentage of today's population engages with some level of postsecondary education before or during their time in the workforce. Thus, if students do not learn critical perspectives during college, then they may--intentionally or not--reproduce discriminatory and harmful outcomes through their professional practices. Secondly, this study is important because it strives to support the presence of criticalness in a field of study, CCJ, that policymakers have used to further marginalize Black, Latinx, and low-income communities. As such, this study on CCJ education helps counter the over-criminalization of these historically-marginalized communities.

Thirdly, the significance of this study also relates to instructors' ability to successfully navigate academia. I account for the beliefs, perceptions, and actions that enabled instructors to meet their critical teaching goals despite contextual barriers. In this sense, the research contributes to how we understand and support the professional trajectory of critically-minded academics. With the professional success of critically-minded academics, critical perspectives may spread to other areas of academia such as journal publications, conference presentations, and college service. Lastly, I also included students' voices; therefore, this study highlights how instructors' critical teaching can influence students' perceptions. More specifically, this study shows some college students have the willingness and capabilities to have critical discussions about their aspiring professions. As a result of this study, scholars, educators, and administrators can gain a better understanding on how to study, cultivate, and support critical teaching in higher education.

Definitions of Terms

Criminology and Criminal Justice (CCJ): Criminology is "the body of knowledge regarding delinquency and crime as social phenomena. It includes within its scope the process of making laws, breaking laws and reacting toward the breaking of laws" (Sutherland & Cressey, 1978, p.

3). Criminal justice can be described as practical criminology which is defined as the study of the implementation and administration of criminal justice policies and practices (Steinmetz et al., 2014). They have some distinct differences, but over time, research shows that their disciplinary goals and values often overlap with one another and complement each other.

Critical Teaching: A teaching framework that includes subject-matter content on the policies and practices within a particular field that can sustain and/or mitigate systemic discrimination and its harmful consequences (Freire, 1970). For CCJ, these policies and practices relate to criminality and crime control. Critical criminologists believe crime cannot be explained by only examining “defective individuals or disorganized communities” because social control, through institutional and political means, can be determining factors in defining and policing deviant behavior (Frederick, 2012, p. 23). At times, I refer to the content represented in critical teaching as “critical perspectives.”

Critical teaching also includes the instructional strategies that can provide students the opportunities to successfully learn the critical course content and apply this knowledge to their lives (Freire, 1970). With critical teaching, college instructors can help develop their students into critically-minded professionals, who are aware of how systemic discrimination can manifest within their profession.

Historically-marginalized students/people: People who are part of a social group that has a history of being denied access to educational systems, political processes, and other social structures that can be central to a democratic society. As a result of this denial, these groups of people have endured systemic discrimination that have caused physical, emotional and/or economic harm. For the purpose of this study, Black, Latinx, and low-income people fall under this definition.

- **Black:** A person or group of people that have origins to any Black African racial groups, who identify as Black, African American, or Afro-Caribbean.

- **Latinx:** A person that represents Mexican, Puerto Rican, Dominican, or any Latin American or Spanish-speaking Caribbean descent. The “x” in the term represents a gender-neutral version of the masculine, generally used term, Latino.
- **Low-income:** Refers to communities and people who have endured generations of poverty levels that can impede their ability to establish and/or sustain socio-economic stability.

Justice-involved individuals/population: People who have engaged in behaviors that led them to involuntarily take part of any or all aspects of the criminal justice system (e.g., law enforcement, courts, corrections). I refrain from using terms such as “criminal” or “offender” to describe this population, unless I am quoting a study participant.

Crime/criminal behavior: An action or set of actions that violates criminal laws and statutes, which can result in someone being processed through the criminal justice system. This can include actions that can be considered universally wrong (e.g., murder), or not (e.g., drug use).

Deviant behavior: An action or set of actions that may contradict popular agreement on what is acceptable behavior, but does not necessarily violate criminal laws (e.g., excessive drinking of alcohol).

Recidivism Rate: Refers to the relative number of justice-involved individuals who, after being released, return to prison or jail because they have committed another crime.

Summary of the Chapters

In the first chapter, I provided the study’s background and rationale. Additionally, Chapter One summarizes the structure and layout of the dissertation chapters. Chapter Two provides the four different areas of educational literature that grounds the conceptual framework. The conceptual framework is grounded in the literature on faculty agency, critical teaching, experimental capacity, and instructional equity. In Chapter Three, I describe the methodology, research design, study participants and site information, and data analysis. For Chapter Four, I present three emergent claims that cut across all examined cases. I provide

evidence to support each of the three claims. In Chapter Five, I discuss the study's claims in relation to the conceptual framework. I also discuss study's implications for future research, teaching and institutional practices, and educational policy.

Chapter 2

Conceptual Framework:

Enhancing Critical Teaching with Instructional Equity

For this study, I examined how college professors enacted and refined a teaching approach that can help develop their students as critically-minded professionals. To understand this critical teaching approach, I used a conceptual framework grounded in the literature on faculty agency, critical curriculum, faculty learning, and instructional equity. Faculty agency is defined as the perspectives and actions that faculty intentionally exert in an attempt to meet their professional goals (Campbell & O'Meara, 2014; Niehaus & O'Meara, 2015). I define a critical curriculum as the subject-matter content instructors use to teach the systemic practices, socio-political contexts, and/or personal views that can disenfranchise and harm certain populations (Freire, 1970; Haberman, 1981; Mezirow, 2009). Faculty learning consists of instructors' beliefs and actions that contribute to their teaching development and how they integrate this work and knowledge with their teaching goals (Bensimon, 2012; Neumann, 2009; Terosky, 2005; Williams & Conyers, 2016). Lastly, I define instructional equity as the teaching strategies that can encourage learning and persistence among historically-marginalized college students (e.g., Black, Latinx, low-income) (Castillo-Montoya, 2018; Reason, 2009; Tinto, 1997).

I used the framework to specifically study professors' beliefs, agentic perspectives and actions contributing to their critical curriculum, instructional practices, and pedagogical learning. Broadly, the framework helped me understand how professors in this study have learned to meet their critical teaching goals with their particular students. In the following sections, I present the current literature informing each of the four areas of the conceptual framework and their significance to the study. Please note I use the term "professor" when referring to the study participants and use "instructor" when referring to the broader community of college faculty that teach college-level courses (e.g., adjunct and full-time instructors, professors).

Faculty Agency: Students' Influence on Critical Teaching

A central component of the framework relates to faculty agency, which helped me understand how professors can adapt to their students' needs in order to meet their critical teaching goals. Agency in the classroom is particularly important for the professors in this study as they work at an institution where the tenure process is primarily based on teaching effectiveness (Hirt, 2006). Research on faculty agency matters because a strong sense of agency can enable faculty to work towards their goals and thrive in the academy-outcomes that can benefit their colleagues, students, and/or institution (Niehaus & O'Meara, 2014; O'Meara & Stromquist, 2015).

As previously defined, agency can consist of agentic perspectives and/or intentional actions that faculty can exert to achieve their professional goals. Agentic perspective is the awareness of how personal and/or environmental factors can shape one's own professional experiences and trajectory (Neumann, Terosky, & Schell, 2006). Such awareness can help individuals map out their career choices. For example, an instructor with children may become aware that the department's "rigid expectations" may not be conducive of their preferred work-life balance-causing them to be unsatisfied and/or leave the institution (O'Meara & Campbell, 2011, p. 465).

Intentional actions refer to concrete steps one takes to achieve an intended goal. For instance, it can simply be attending teaching workshops to increase their teaching knowledge and impact in the classroom. Or, intentional actions can be more ambiguous such as an instructor refusing to take part in some particular college-service in order to focus on their research and/or teaching. These intentional actions are especially crucial for the success of Black, women scholars as they are regularly asked to be part of service-related activities that have minor impact on securing tenure (Patton & Catching, 2009; Sulé, 2014). In regards to this study, I used this line of research to understand professors' agentic perspectives and intentional actions that helped them achieve their critical teaching goals. Both concepts are included in this

study because one's agentic perspectives can highly influence their actions (Campbell & O'Meara, 2014).

While feeling a strong sense of agency can positively impact one's work satisfaction and productivity, some personal and environmental factors can support or hinder one's sense of agency. As described by Campbell and O' Meara (2014), faculty agency can be "shaped by a number of individual (e.g., psychological traits, identities), organizational (e.g., policies, climates, resources) and societal (e.g., disciplinary norms, social stratification) forces" (p. 52). At the societal level, agency can be influenced by technological advances, or by societal norms (Meyer & Jepperson, 2000; Pickering, 1993). At the individual level, one's self-efficacy and personal history with a task can shape agency (Bandura, 1992; O' Meara & Campbell, 2011; Patton & Catching 2009). For example, with a history of colleagues and students unjustly and disproportionately doubting the work of Black and/or women instructors, these instructors exert their agency in particular ways in order to meet their goals (Patton & Catching, 2009).

Though faculty agency can be influenced by a multitude of factors, this study focused on an organizational factor, the institution's student-body. I categorized the student-body as an organizational factor because the student-body is determined by the institution's type, history, and mission (Hirt, 2006). The current scholarship on faculty agency does not include much research on organizational influences-especially from the student-body. Furthermore, research on faculty agency regarding their teaching is limited, which can be a problem in higher education as university faculty have increasingly been expected to be "all-around academics" who can productively engage in research, teaching, and service (Macfarlane, 2011; Rawn & Fox, 2018, p. 592). As such, research on organizational influences on faculty teaching agency can position college instructors, administrators, and policymakers to take concrete actions that can support faculty teaching development (Campbell & O' Meara, 2014).

The current literature helped me identify the ways faculty may exert their agency in response to organizational forces (Campbell & O'Meara, 2014; Gonzales, 2012; O'Meara &

Campbell, 2011). For instance, Gonzalez (2012) examined faculty agency at an institution transforming from a comprehensive, teaching university into a research-centric university. They found faculty members adopted new practices that aligned with research universities such as “the production of research, grant writing, and/or decreased time for teaching, course preparation, and service” (Gonzales, 2012, p. 345). On the other hand, Gonzales (2012) also found faculty members maintained a commitment to student-centered teaching and to disseminate their work regionally. As seen with this research, a shifting organizational mission can influence faculty agency in ways that they adopt new practices, but also maintain ones that faculty seem to value the most.

In a more recent study, scholars have examined the departmental contexts that can influence faculty agency about their career advancement (Campbell & O’Meara, 2014). Campbell and O’Meara (2014) administered a survey to 488 tenure-track faculty members that captured instructors’ perceptions on departmental contexts that can hinder and/or support their agency with career advancements (i.e., tenure and promotion process, work-life climate, transparency, person-department fit, professional development resources, and collegiality). They found that departments can positively influence faculty agency when departmental administrators a) support work-life balance, b) value faculty scholarship, c) provide professional development resources (e.g., research and teaching assistants), and d) set clear expectations for tenure and promotion process (Campbell & O’Meara, 2014). As such, organizational factors can encourage faculty agency.

However, Campbell and O’Meara (2014) and other research based on the same data does not account for students and their influence on instructors’ professional goals (Niehaus & O’ Meara, 2015; Terosky, O’Meara, & Campbell, 2014). The current literature also does not account for the teaching actions instructors take to meet their goals. Thus, through this research, I expand the scholarship on faculty agency by identifying and examining some of the specific ways the student-body-an organizational factor-can influence college instructors’

teaching development. This research matters because faculty responsiveness to students can be essential for effective teaching-especially when teaching Black, Latinx, low-income, and other marginalized students (Bensimon, 2012; Castillo-Montoya, 2018, 2019; González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005).

To understand the agentic perspectives and intentional actions that guided professors' critical teaching, I drew on critical pedagogy and other asset-based teaching approaches (e.g., transformative learning, culturally-sustaining pedagogy). I also used the literature on faculty learning and instructional equity to understand how faculty can support their critical teaching goals. Each one of these three concepts are further discussed in the following subsections.

Critical curriculum: Including critical disciplinary content. The literature on critical pedagogy and similar teaching models helped me identify the subject-matter content instructors can include in the curriculum to meet critical teaching goals. A fundamental need for a critical curriculum is the presence of course content on the systemic discrimination existing within their field of study (Freire, 1970; Tuitt, 2003, 2010, 2016). Without content that highlights systemic discrimination, faculty can have a difficult time with meeting critical teaching goals such as increasing students' awareness of the socio-political contexts contributing to people's social statuses (Castillo-Montoya, 2018; Freire, 1970). As such, I relied on this line of research to identify the course content faculty use to meet their critical teaching goals—particularly the goals related to criminal justice professions.

Given the study's focus on CCJ professors, I present the disciplinary content that can support critical teaching in CCJ education. CCJ instructors can use several theoretical frameworks to explore the relationship between criminal justice and social identities (e.g., race, gender and class) such as critical race criminology, feminist criminology and Marxist criminology. Critical race criminologists use Critical Race Theory (CRT) to produce scholarship on the racial disparities that exist across the criminal justice system—from initial contact with police to sentencing (Butler, 2006; Johnson, 2014; Johnson & Geoff, 2014; Lee, 2014). Feminist

criminologists produce scholarship on gender-based inequities among victims of crime, the justice-involved population, and criminal justice practitioners (Burgess-Proctor, 2006; Chesney-Lind & Chagnon, 2016; DeKeseredy, 2011). Marxist criminologists have analyzed individuals' and groups' different levels of income and resources and their relationship with criminality and crime control (Lynch, 2015, 2013; Michalowski, 2013).

CCJ instructors who use critical theories can facilitate learning about the socio-political contexts and actors that maintain inequalities in the criminal justice system (Barton et al., 2010; Bornstein et al., 2017; Gabbidon & Taylor Greene, 2013; Taylor Greene, 2015). For instance, Barton et al., (2010), regularly integrated critical theories and perspectives and found that their criminology students from three different years (n=65) had the “capacity to question and resist the status quo through challenging hegemonic discourses and exploring subjugated knowledges” (p. 39). Similarly, Bornstein et al. (2012) found that CRT-based ethnic courses increased students' awareness of White privilege, institutional discrimination, and blatant racism. While all students from the CRT-based course made significant gains in critical awareness, White males made the most drastic changes (Bornstein et al., 2012). As seen in the literature, CCJ educators who include critical theories to the curriculum use them to teach the historical, social, and political factors that affect criminality and crime control efforts.

In addition to critical theories, another important component of a critical curriculum is the presence of students' knowledge (e.g., cultural norms and values, disciplinary assumptions) (Brookfield, 2009; Cranton, 2006; Freire, 1970; Mezirow, 2009). With students' knowledge embedded in the curriculum, students can feel empowered to participate in the learning process, which can be a crucial step in students learning about their socio-political circumstances (Castillo-Montoya, 2018; McLaren, 1989, Trabrizi & Rideout, 2017). Also, instructors can challenge students' assumptions perpetuating inequities and/or build on assumptions grounded in critical perspectives. For example, Howes (2017) conducted a study on 21 second- and third-year criminology students who critically reflected on racialized incidents

between the indigenous community and police officers. Throughout the semester, the instructor prompted the students to reflect on their biases and how the racialized incidents challenged their assumptions of policing and indigenous people. The students demonstrated a shift in their thinking about criminal justice through the use of “logical structure and use of supporting evidence” (p. 900). In addition to these studies, educational research shows the inclusion of students’ knowledge can serve as a catalyst to explore one’s misconceived notions about the subject matter-an important step in critical teaching (Gay & Kirklan, 2003; Mezirow, 2009; Paris & Alim, 2017; Rockell, 2009). On the other hand, instructors can expand on students’ prior knowledge to learn new subject-matter concepts (Castillo-Montoya, 2018)

Faculty learning: Resources and strategies supporting teaching development.

Another component of the conceptual framework relates to faculty learning, which helped me understand the resources and strategies professors use to learn how to teach the subject-matter to their particular students (Neumann, 2009; Terosky, 2005). Actions related to faculty learning tend to fall under two categories: a) identifying locations to learn (e.g., workshops) and b) using strategies to maximize learning within those locations (e.g., self-reflection, dialogue) (Neumann, 2009; Terosky, 2005). For instructors, learning tends to occur in three broad locations: a) academic activity (e.g., research, teaching, service, b) academic collectivity (e.g., social networks and organizations), and c) personal existence (e.g., autobiographical meaning-making) (Neumann, 2009; Schön, 1987; Terosky 2005). Thus, faculty learning can play out in different situations, for example, in-the-moment surprises that interrupt performance and causes the practitioners to be more conscientious about their performance (Schön, 1993). Learning can also occur among other practitioners, which can foster a more structured and collective learning experience (Amble, 2012; Schön, 1993). In collective spaces, learning is supported through a strong sense of community and responsibility for student learning, whereas more solitude spaces can support deeper, more personal ways of learning (Schön, 1987).

Along with location, faculty learn to teach by using reflective practices (Mezirow, 2009; Sanders, Haselden, & Moss, 2014; Terosky, 2005). Faculty can engage in structured reflective practices such as journaling or less structured ones such as informal conversations with colleagues (Schön, 1987; Shulman, 2004; Terosky, 2005). In education, reflective practices allow teachers to monitor their teaching, emotions, and beliefs and to intervene when pedagogical or other changes are deemed necessary in order to support student learning (Fairchild, 2015; Terosky, 2005). Also, self-reflection can help faculty process and understand the context in which their teaching experiences occur (Pedrosa-de-Jesus, Guerra & Watts, 2017). As such, they can learn how institutional and broader societal factors can impact their teaching, which can lead to improvements in their teaching. Through reflective practices, faculty can adjust to students' behaviors (e.g., student resistance) and learning preferences (e.g., passive versus active) as well as adjust teaching style to accommodate the format (e.g., teaching online versus face-to-face).

Instructors can use a more critical form of self-reflection to learn how their and their students' power "undergird, frame, and distort educational processes and interactions" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 8; Mezirow, 2006). Some instructors also use critical self-reflection to question teaching practices that appear effective, but may actually sabotage student learning (Brookfield, 1995). Regardless of location, formality, or reflective method, instructors find that continuously learning about pedagogy and the subject matter can be difficult and time-consuming, but a valuable practice that can improve and sustain teaching goals (Beauchamp, 2015; Terosky, 2005).

Lastly, the scholarship on capacity-building in teachers helped me understand the resources and knowledge that enable faculty to try new teaching strategies. I did not have teaching capacity as part of my initial conceptual framework. However, I included it when I recognized professors in this study used a "trial and error" approach in the classroom to learn what teaching strategies work. Consequently, I asked myself the following analytic question:

What resources and/or dispositions lead faculty to try new teaching strategies? The literature on teaching capacity helped me answer this question. Teaching capacity is defined as the dispositions (e.g., beliefs, attitudes, values); the multitude of knowledge (e.g., pedagogical, subject-matter); and opportunities that enable teachers to perform a particular task (McDiarmid & Clevenger-Bright; 2008). As described by Davies and Salisbury (2008), all three areas must be present and supported for teachers to have the capacity to teach.

While capacity-building is considered essential for faculty teaching development, there is a paucity of research on faculty capacity-building in higher education (McDiarmid & Clevenger-Bright; 2008). The current literature mainly focuses on institutional initiatives that can support teachers' dispositions, knowledge, and opportunities to teach (Biggs, Bowers, & Bartle Angus, 2018; Murray et al., 2009). For instance, California State University - Fullerton (CSUF) and a local community college established a partnership to educate CSUF pre-service developmental literacy instructors. The partnership included "knowledge of reading development and instruction, disciplinary epistemologies, critical and reflective literacy strategies and practice, and adult learner development and instruction" (Biggs, Bowers, & Bartle Angus, 2018, p. 156). Researchers found the partnership coupled with an internship helped build the teaching capacity of pre-service faculty (Biggs, Bowers, & Bartle Angus, 2018). However, given the infrequency of such institutional initiatives, further research is needed to understand the individual-level, day-to-day factors that can give instructors the capacity to improve their teaching.

Instructional equity: Teaching strategies supporting success among underserved students. The third major part of the conceptual framework relates to instructional strategies that can cultivate success among historically-underserved college students (e.g., Black, Latinx, low-income). I define this concept as instructional equity. I did not have instructional equity in my initial conceptual framework, but I included it when I recognized all three professors heavily focused on their instructional practices to support student success. Student success can be

defined by students' year-to-year persistence, graduation rates, course completion rates, and/or knowledge acquisition (Kinzie & Kuh, 2017). For this study, I define student success as students learning the subject matter as well as students persisting throughout the semester (i.e., regular class attendance). Student persistence is a key component of student success as it consists of a student's ability to stay on track towards their educational goals (Reason, 2009; Tinto, 1975). I further expand on this concept when describing the instructional strategies (i.e., quizzes and assignments) that professors in this study used to increase class attendance (i.e., student persistence)

There are numerous academic and non-academic factors that can highly impact student success (Wolniak, Mayhew, & Engberg, 2012). These factors include "pre-college academics, college choice and financial aid, institutional characteristics, the role of academic and social integration, and college grades" (Burrus, et al., 2013; Wolniak et al., 2012, p. 798). Researchers have also highlighted the need for college instructors and scholars to account for cultural factors (e.g., race, gender, class) in order to understand and support success among marginalized student populations (Bensimon, Dowd, & Witham, 2016; Harper, 2012; Museus & Quaye, 2009). Much of the current literature on student success has focused on the impact of institutional practices such as guided course pathways, learning communities, and support services (e.g., tutoring, advising) (Boner & Walter, 2016; Finley & McNair, 2013; Johnstone, 2015). While institutional practices are necessary for sustaining student success, I focused on classroom teaching as instructors can be some of the most reliable catalysts for student success (Loes, An, & Pascarella, 2019; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Tinto, 2003).

To understand how professors in this study potentially ensured student success, I relied on several different areas of research on teaching instructions. For one, I used the research on active learning to understand the benefits of the instructional strategies presented in this study such as journaling (i.e., critical self-reflection), class discussions, quizzes, and in-class assignments (Hackathorn et al., 2011; Stewart, Myers, & Culley, 2009). I relied on the active

learning literature to also understand how professors' quizzes and assignments possibly impacted class attendance (i.e., persistence) (Dobson, 2008; Pennebaker, Gosling, & Ferrell, 2013). Lastly, research on Bloom's Taxonomy of Questions helped me understand how the questions in the quizzes and assignments (e.g., journals) positioned students to engage in high-order thinking (Bloom et al., 1956). In this sense, faculty who do instructional equity should ensure students engage with the subject matter in meaningful, complex ways in order to enhance students' cognitive skills and their critical understanding of the subject matter (Campbell, Dortch, & Burt, 2018, Scheen, 2008; Whittington, 1997). In the following subsections, I expand on each of these lines of research to show how they helped me understand how faculty enhanced their critical teaching with instructional equity.

Active learning strategies. Active learning is a broad term used to describe instructional practices that position students to engage in their own learning process (Hackathorn et al., 2011; Kinzie et al., 2008; Michel, Carter, & Varela, 2009). While public education teachers have historically positioned students as passive learners, there have been past and present educators who promote active learning strategies (Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Dewey, 1902; Conner et al., 2014;). The educational philosopher John Dewey (1902) described learning as a social phenomenon that can have societal benefits. Chickering and Gamson (1987) developed the extensively-referenced *Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education*, which included active learning strategies. Most recently, higher education research shows that active learning “can transform college and university classrooms into dynamic, interactive learning environments where the educator guides students as they apply concepts and engage creatively in the subject matter” (Brewer & Movahedazarhouli, 2018, p. 8). As such, an active approach can lead students to go beyond the traditional passive role in the college classroom and learn through a range of activities such as class discussions, reflection, and group work. Active learning strategies can specifically increase student engagement; help meet learning goals; enhance cognitive and interpersonal skills; increase

student satisfaction; and support student persistence (Barkley, 2015; Kinzie et al., 2008; O'Flaherty & Phillips, 2015). Active learning strategies can be especially necessary for marginalized college students because they are often positioned as passive learners throughout their education and silenced with teaching practices that are more appropriate for White, middle-class students (Castillo-Montoya, 2018; Delpit, 2006; González et al., 2005; Lee, 2007).

In this study, all three participating professors regularly used class discussions and small, frequent, in-class assignments and/or quizzes to ensure students actively engaged with the course content. As such, the presented literature review highlights the impact of such strategies on student success (i.e., student learning and persistence). The inclusion of both of these areas (i.e., student learning and persistence) is important to understand student success because one active learning strategy does not guarantee students will meet their educational goals (Michel, Carter, & Varela, 2009; Wolniak, Mayhew, & Engberg, 2012). For instance, students may learn the course content and successfully complete the course, but may not persist to the following semester because of personal or financial reasons (Brooker, 2016; Kinzie et al., 2009). The opposite can also be true: students may persist from semester to semester, but have a limited, surface-level understanding of the subject matter (Lord & Baviskar, 2007). Therefore, including both student learning and student persistence in the conceptual framework allowed me to gain a comprehensive understanding of professors' instructional practices and their impact on student success.

Impact of active learning strategies on student learning. To understand the impact on student learning, researchers have examined students' perceptions about active learning strategies as well as examined outcomes of students' assignments, quizzes, and exams (Armstrong, Chang, & Brickman, 2007; Bishop & Verleger, 2013). Research on students' perceptions on active learning indicates that students may prefer an active, student-centered classroom and believe that such an approach helps them learn the course content. For example, Lumpkin, Achen, and Dodd (2015) studied 208 students from five different courses in

which the faculty engaged them in various in-class and out-of-class writing assignments and group work. They found students “overwhelmingly” believed the active learning strategies helped them meet the courses’ learning outcomes (Lumpkin, Achen, & Dodd, 2015, p. 129).

In regards to Black, Latinx, and low-income students, active learning strategies can increase faculty-student interactions and support these students’ sense of belonging, or connectedness with instructors and peers (Brooker, 2016; Engle & Tinto, 2008; Kenzie et al., 2009; Rendón, 2002; Strayhorn, 2018). In turn, faculty-student interactions can support students’ subject-matter learning, academic skills, and knowledge about higher education (Barbatis, 2010; Bush & Bush, 2010). For instance, Wood and Ireland (2014) examined 11,384 Black male respondents of the Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE) to understand what educational practices can support productive faculty-student interactions. They found Black students perceived active learning strategies such as learning communities helped enhance their interactions with faculty (Woods & Ireland, 2014). Schademan and Thompson (2016) researched low-income students and found students in their study perceive “effective instructors built supportive relationships with students by making efforts to learn about their lives” (p. 208). As shown with the presented scholarship, scholars of higher education have provided a strong line of research showing that students’ perceive active learning strategies as beneficial to their learning (Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Kim et al., 2014; Sparks, 2013; Strayer, 2012).

Along with students’ perceptions, researchers have also examined students’ academic performance to understand the impact of active learning strategies. The current literature indicates a positive relationship between active learning and students’ assignments, quizzes, and/or exams. For instance, Albert and Beatty (2014) studied the effects of active learning strategies (e.g., group work, class discussions) on business students’ exam grades. At an institution similar to the one in this study, they conducted a quasi-experimental study with one control group (i.e., 596 students doing traditional learning) and one treatment group (i.e., 321

students doing active learning). Both groups had the same course materials (e.g., textbooks, syllabus, exams). Using quantitative methods, Albert and Beatty (2014) found students engaging with active learning strategies scored significantly higher in all three exams. Other researchers have reached similar results (Ferrerri & O'Connor, 2013; Peterson, 2016; Stone, 2012). As shown with the presented research on student learning, faculty can enhance students' satisfaction and academic performance with active learning strategies.

Impact of active learning strategies on student persistence. Along with student learning, I also accounted for student persistence in order to understand the impact of faculty instructional strategies on student success. Student persistence can have a different meaning depending on the study. Current research focuses on semester-to-semester and year-to-year persistence (Kinzie & Kuh, 2017). Given this study focused on classroom teaching within one semester, I became interested in understanding how faculty ensured their students persisted class-to-class, week-to-week. As such, I was able to identify the instructional strategies that can encourage students to regularly attend class. This heightened presence in the classroom can lead to student success as defined in this study and lead to additional professional and/or educational endeavors (Braxton, 2008).

In this study, professors regularly used small, frequent, in-class assignments and quizzes that potentially encouraged students to attend class. The literature on these strategies show that they can increase attendance (Botek, 2013; Braun & Sellers, 2012; Stone, 2012). For instance, Barun and Sellers (2012) studied the impact of a daily three-question quiz on the attendance and class completion of accounting students. Quizzes are considered an active learning strategy as it can encourage students to complete coursework and study in preparation for the quizzes. Braun and Sellers (2012) found the quizzes not only supported class attendance, but they potentially also helped students successfully complete the course. Stone (2012) studied non-science biology students who were instructed to complete small, frequent assignments before the class lesson. They found these students compared to the control group

had higher attendance rates and fewer withdrawals from the examined courses (Stone, 2012). This heightened engagement with the coursework is particularly important for Black, Latinx, and low-income students because such strategies can increase these students' sense of belonging and navigational capital in higher education (Barbera et al., 2017; Samuelson & Litler, 2016; Yosso, 2005). As evident by the research, active learning strategies can also have a positive effect on student persistence (i.e., attendance). Coupled with the positive impact on grades, active learning strategies can ensure student success (Loes, An, & Pascarella, 2019).

Bloom's Taxonomy of Questions. Lastly, I also included Bloom's Taxonomy of Questions as a component of the conceptual framework (Bloom et al., 1956; Tabrizi & Rideout, 2017). I used the research on Bloom's Taxonomy to understand how, if at all, professors' active learning strategies (i.e., student success strategies) positioned students to develop higher-order thinking and cognitive skills. These skills can include, but not limited to logical reasoning abilities; reflective judgment; analytical and argumentative capacities; and distinguishing bias from reason (Flavell, 1979; Whittington, 1997). Such skills can allow students to develop as lifelong learners, who can learn to solve personal and professional problems with innovation, reflection, and collaboration (Tabrizi & Rideout, 2017).

As stated by Hackathorn et al. (2011), "Bloom's cognitive processing taxonomy is a valid, reliable, efficient, and effective means of evaluating learning" (p. 42, Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001; Bloom, et al., 1956; Lord & Bavisar, 2007; Noble, 2004). As shown in Table 1, Bloom's taxonomy consists of six groups of questions, which are categorized from lower- to higher-order thinking (Lord, & Bavisar, 2007). The questions that elicit lower-order thinking are knowledge-, comprehension-, and application-type questions, while the questions that elicit higher-order thinking are analysis-, evaluation, and synthesis-type questions (Bloom, et al., 1956).

While Bloom's Taxonomy of Questions may be prominent in the U.S. education system, there are critiques about the model's limitations. For one, the hierarchical model may suggest to

teachers that they should only move towards higher-order thinking questions when students have mastered lower-level questions (Case, 2013). However, some educators argue this linear approach to teaching does not align with how people learn as many students may need to apply knowledge in order for them to remember it (Berger, 2018). As a result, teachers may remain in the lower levels of Bloom's model, which can mean they miss opportunities to teach students who may not learn in a linear manner (Berger, 2018; Case, 2013). In regards to this study, I did not focus on how professors scaffolded questions from lower to higher levels. Rather, I examined the distributions of the questions to understand how each level was represented in professors' small, frequent assignments and quizzes. This examination allowed me to highlight the presence of possible higher-order thinking compared to lower-level thinking.

Table 1: Bloom's Taxonomy of Questions

Question Type	Definition
Knowledge	Students are required to recall facts pertaining to the topic that has been taught. The instructor would ask students to describe, list, or name the factual information they've learned in class.
Comprehension	Students are required to reword and explain in a meaningful manner something they have learned. Descriptors such as translate, construe, interpret, and extrapolate are commonly used at this level.
Application	Students are required to think holistically about the concepts learned and apply them to novel situations
Analysis	Students are expected to break ideas into component parts and uncover the unique characteristics of what they have been taught. Terms like deduce, scrutinize, and survey are frequently encountered in questions in this category.
Evaluation	Students are expected to make judgments about what they have learned based on either external or internal criteria. Students must prioritize their understandings as they form their conclusions.
Synthesis	Students who function at this level are able to pattern knowledge in new, original ways and exploit their creativity. Terms like formulate, generate, and restructure are often found at this level of the taxonomy.

I noticed another limitation of Bloom's model: it does not fundamentally focus on critical perspectives. To address this, I combined Bloom's Taxonomy of Questions with critical subject-matter content to understand how professors can help students go beyond remembering and understanding content on systemic discrimination, and engage in more cognitive-rigorous coursework (Tabrizi & Rideout, 2017). This was an important aspect of the conceptual framework because instructors may refrain from engaging students in deeper, more analytical ways because such learning can be time consuming. For one, critical perspectives are not in mainstream media or education (Frederick, 2014; Rosino & Hughley, 2017). Additionally, professors in this study perceived their students lacking college-level academic skills. Therefore, instructors may be prone to take a surface-level approach to teaching critical perspectives to historically-marginalized students. However, this can result in Black, Latinx, and Latinx students' ability to recall facts and figures, but without the ability to apply critical concepts to their own living and working situations (Forbes & Kaufman, 2008; Tabrizi & Rideout, 2017).

In higher education, researchers have primarily used Bloom's Taxonomy to study STEM education. They have found a significant portion of STEM college students mostly engage in lower-order thinking (Brierton et al., 2016; Lord & Baviskar, 2007; Zhao, 2017). As such, many college students are expected "to simply regurgitate the information they have been told to learn" and may not be developing essential cognitive skills nor learning the subject matter in meaningful ways (Gasiewski et al., 2012; Lord & Baviskar, 2007, p. 40; Nevid & McClelland, 2013). Nonetheless, college faculty have used Bloom's Taxonomy to enhance student learning. Crowe, Dirks, and Wenderoth (2008) used a Bloom-based rubric to assess and redesign exam questions and learning activities. They found the rubric helped them design questions at higher cognitive levels, and helped the students engage with complex study questions in preparation for exams, which then had a positive effect on their grades (Crowe et al., 2008). Faculty can also use Bloom's Taxonomy to enhance the course's teaching objectives, which can then help

faculty choose the appropriate course materials to meet the Bloom-inspired course objectives (Starr, Manaris, & Stalvey, 2008).

Given the potential of Bloom's Taxonomy in enhancing student learning, this study can expand our understanding on how faculty teach critical perspectives in cognitively-rigorous ways—an understudied teaching strategy in higher education. Campbell and Dortch (2018) conducted 140 classroom observations at two highly-ranked research institutions. They found most instructors used class time to engage students higher-order of thinking (i.e., analysis, evaluating, synthesis) (Campbell & Dortch, 2018). This present study expands the literature by a) examining the course materials (e.g., assignments, quizzes, and exams); b) studying instructors' and students' lived experiences related to designing and completing the course materials; and c) focusing on historically-marginalized college students. As such, through this research, I posit that cognitively-rigorous teaching is an issue of instructional equity as Black, Latinx, and low-income students may not be engaging in learning that requires higher-order cognitive skills (Abreu, Castillo-Montoya, & Kortz, 2019).

Chapter 2 Summary

In sum, the conceptual framework was designed to understand how professors, who use critical perspectives in their work, help ensure their students also develop as critically-minded professionals. More specifically, I used the conceptual framework to examine faculty agentic perspectives and intentional actions related to their curriculum design, instructional practices as well as the processes they use to learn and develop as critical classroom teachers. This research can make significant scholarly and practical contributions as there is minimal understanding on how to prepare future and current practitioners to view their profession and their individual practices through a critical lens.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Through an exploratory, qualitative multi-case study, I aimed to understand how three CCJ professors enacted and refined a teaching approach that enabled their students to develop as critically-minded professionals. To understand this development, I used multiple research methods to capture professors' beliefs, perceptions, and actions related to their learning and critical teaching practices. More specifically, I conducted professor and student interviews, classroom observations, and document analysis. In this chapter, I describe my study's interpretive approach and multi-case study design. I also describe the site selection and data sample as well as the data collection process and analysis. Additionally, I describe the ways I protected study participants, and conclude the chapter by describing the study's limitations and how I addressed them in the study.

Researcher Subjectivity

As a researcher, it is important to acknowledge how my lived experiences and subjectivities can impact the data collection process and data analysis (Peshkin, 1988). My personal experiences are invariable aspects of the research, which likely influenced the study. For instance, as a first-generation, Dominican-American, I believe I have personally, academically, and professionally benefited from learning and developing critical perspectives. These perspectives helped me acknowledge my limited social and navigational capital regarding social institutions like schools, which then positioned me to be intentional about educational choices. Thus, I have developed biases about the learning benefits of a critical pedagogy and other asset-based teaching approaches (e.g., culturally-sustaining pedagogy). I also recognize that aspects of my background influenced how study participants engaged with me; thus, the findings are also dependent on my identity (Peshkin, 1988). In this study, there were instances when my past experiences as a police officer and a criminal justice student caused professors to not fully explain their ideas as they instead referred to my past as an

indication that I understood their partially-explained ideas. During these moments, I would probe professors to further explain their ideas and perceptions.

Despite my biases and influence of my identity, my background and prior experiences also strengthened the study. My personal and professional experiences contributed to an insider and intimate knowledge regarding equity, higher education, and criminal justice. Yin (2003) described insider knowledge as essential to capture an in-depth understanding of the examined phenomenon. However, researchers should establish a systematic way to account for their biases and presence. For this study, I engaged in reflexive practices such as journaling and peer debriefs, and kept an ongoing record of my emerging reactions and awareness of assumptions and biases. Throughout data collection and analysis, I reviewed the recorded notes and made conscious decisions on how the reflection would or would not impact the study (Morrow, 2005; Peshkin, 1988; Rennie, 2004). I expand further on my reflexive practices in the following sections on the specific employed research methods.

Study Design: Multi-case study

For this study, I rely on an interpretive epistemology to understand CCJ professors' teaching experiences with developing their students as critically-minded practitioners. Interpretive research assumes reality is constructed through social interactions (Erickson, 1986). In regards to this study, I am interested in understanding professors' realities as it pertains to critical teaching. I view these realities developing in the classroom, where meaning-making and learning occurs through the interactions between the teacher and students (Erickson, 1986). I also asked participants about social interactions in other areas of their professional and personal lives (e.g., discipline, community, family) as these broader contexts can also influence how people make sense of subject-matter and pedagogical concepts (Erickson, 1986; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; LeCompte & Schensul, 2010).

An exploratory multi-case study is an appropriate methodology for this research because of the rarity of the examined phenomenon: critical teaching in CCJ education. As shown with

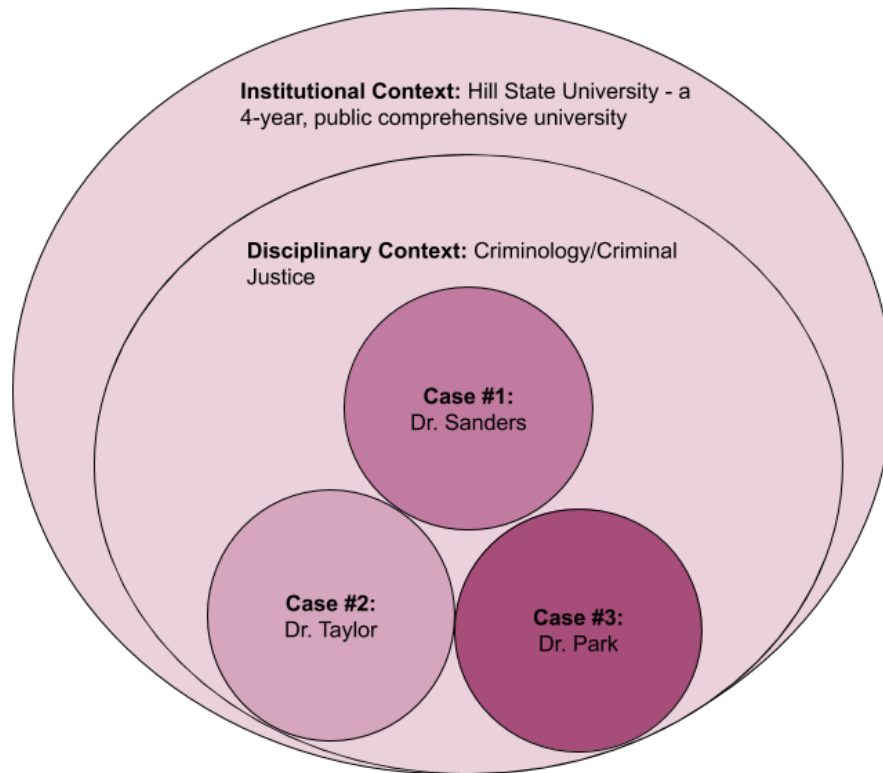
research on courses, textbooks, and instructors' perceptions, critical topics and teaching strategies may not be prevalent in CCJ education (Eigenberg & Park, 2015; Frederick, 2012; Gabbidon & Preston, 2003; Pattern & Way, 2011). As such, an exploratory case study allowed me to identify what content and strategies professors used in their courses, which then positioned me to present multiple future paths for research on critical teaching in CCJ programs and other contexts in higher education (Campbell & Ahrens, 1998; Yin, 2003).

Additionally, a multi-case study design is suitable when "contextual conditions are highly pertinent to your phenomena of study" (Yin, 2003, pg. 13). In critical teaching, contextual factors related to instructors' students, institution, and discipline can highly impact instructors' ability to teach in equitable ways (Brooms & Brice, 2017; Gerkin & Kierkus, 2011; Patton, 2009). Lastly, given my interpretive epistemic approach, I needed to capture multiple data sources in order to understand professors' moment-by-moment interactions and the meanings that derive from those interactions (Erikson, 1986; Yin, 2003). Thus, I collected data from professor and student interviews, classroom observations, and document analysis.

In addition to the appropriate rationales for a multi-case study, the methodology consists of two primary components: a) more than one case—individuals, events, interventions, or phenomena that are the primary units of analysis, and b) the context—the social, institutional, and environmental conditions that bind the examined cases (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Yin, 2003). For this study, each case is defined as a full-time CCJ professor, whose teaching includes elements of equity. The multiple cases enabled me to conduct cross-case analysis on the similarities and differences across cases, which yielded nuances of critical teaching (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Yin, 2003). The context was defined as a four-year, public, comprehensive university, where full-time professors mostly teach and have some research and service responsibilities. The context also consisted of the discipline, CCJ. Accounting for the institution and discipline helped me identify contextual factors that can support and/or hinder professors'

critical teaching (Yin, 2003). Figure 1 shows the conceptual map of the multi-case study design for this study.

Figure 1: Conceptual map of multi-case study design



The Contexts: Hill State University & CCJ

An important component of case study research is the context. The context is defined as the conditions that bind the examined case(s) so the researcher can study the case(s) within reasonable, well-established boundaries (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The case can be bounded by time and place; by time and activity; or by definition and context (Creswell, 2014; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Stake, 1995). These boundaries ensure the study remains reasonable in scope and account for contextual factors that can impact the examined cases: CCJ professors' critical teaching (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Yin, 2003).

For this study, the cases were bounded within a 15-week semester at a public, four-year comprehensive university, Hill State University (HSU). HSU is a pseudonym. I purposefully

sampled HSU based on elements I note in my problem statement and literature review. For one, HSU represents the institutional type that awards the most criminal justice degrees nationwide—public, 4-year, comprehensive universities (Sloan & Buchwalter, 2016). Thus, this site can inform my understanding of the faculty responsible for educating a vast number of CCJ students. Secondly, I chose to study HSU because I am interested in supporting educational equity at institutions with relatively high enrollment of students from marginalized populations. At HSU, Black and Latinx students represent approximately 30% of the student-body. Also, according to the HSU website, over 60 percent of HSU students receive need-based financial aid—indicating to me that HSU potentially serves many students from low-income communities. Additionally, I purposefully sampled HSU because full-time professors are expected to mostly teach as well as conduct some research and college-service. Therefore, I can understand how different areas of academia can sustain or hinder critical teaching (Sloan & Buchwalter, 2016). Lastly, I also chose HSU because I had access to this institution. Please refer to Appendix B for a letter of agreement from a representative from HSU who agreed to be the institutional gatekeeper to this study.

The discipline was also a factor in my site selection. I chose to study CCJ because I am interested in understanding and supporting a large percentage of college students. CCJ has increasingly become one of the most popular majors in higher education, including at HSU (Sloan & Buchwalter, 2016). Also, I chose CCJ because dominant social groups (i.e., White, wealthy males) have historically used the criminal justice system to disenfranchise Black, Latinx, and/or low-income communities as well as other groups with limited social and political power (Alexander, 2012; DuVernay & Barish, 2016; Obama, 2016; Sloan; Stevenson, 2015). Therefore, studying and supporting educational equity in CCJ education can highlight the role higher education plays in developing critical consumers and practitioners of CCJ.

The Cases: CCJ Professors

I used purposive sampling to identify the cases (i.e., units of analysis): full-time CCJ professors doing critical teaching. Purposive sampling was appropriate for this study because it allowed me to select specific study participants that can provide meaningful and relevant information on rare, understudied phenomena (Yin, 2014). I sought to study 3-5 full-time CCJ professors who employ critical content and/or teaching strategies. This meant, at the time of the study, professors must have possessed the following criteria to participate in the study, a) teach a typical course load for a full-time professor at HSU; b) have non-teaching responsibilities typical for HSU faculty (e.g., research, college-service); and c) integrate critical perspectives on race, gender, class, or similar topics into their teaching, research, and/or college service. This integration may have been indicative of professors' criticalness in their classroom, which positioned me to answer the research questions.

Recruiting the professors. To start the recruitment phase, I reviewed HSU's websites to identify CCJ professors who meet all or some of the study's criteria to participate. This process involved me reviewing their professional bios, curriculum vitae (CVs) when available, and publications. To determine whether or not the professors might employ aspects of critical teaching, I searched publicly available information for evidence of critical theories, focus on education, social and scholarly activism, and other topics that can align with critical practices. These markers did not tell me the level of criticalness in professors' teaching, but they may have indicated the presence of critical teaching, which in turn, increased the likelihood I would see critical teaching in their classrooms. It is important to note that professors' individual criticalness may vary. In other words, a professor may use critical content in regards to race, but be less effective at addressing gender-based issues (Kelly, 2013; Alim, 2011). As such, I acknowledged study participants can be on a continuous journey to comprehensively execute critical teaching.

I planned to recruit 3-5 study participants from HSU, which is an appropriate sample size given the rarity of the phenomenon, the precedent set by similar multiple case studies, and the feasibility of the study (Creswell, 2007; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). The preliminary review of

professors' bios, CVs, and publications showed six out of 12 full-time professors at HSU met the criteria. In addition to meeting study criteria, these professors varied in race, gender, and ranking. Once I received IRB approval, I emailed professors explaining the nature of the study and inviting them to participate. I did not email all 12 professors at the same time as this may have produced a sample size too large for the capacity of this study. Therefore, I first emailed professors who most aligned with the purpose of this study. This meant I emailed professors whose possible critical approach was most apparent in their CVs, bios, and publications. At HSU, there were three professors whose research was on race, gender, and crime. They had also received recognitions and awards for teaching.

As a result of the emails, I had separate in-person meetings with four HSU professors to discuss the purpose of the study, their possible role in the study, and other aspects of the study as described in the consent form. I also addressed their questions. Two of them were associate professors, and two were assistant professors. Ultimately, the two assistant professors agreed to take part in the study and proceeded to complete consent forms. Refer to Appendix C for the recruitment email and Appendix E for the consent form.

Given the initial small sample size, I utilized snowball sampling to recruit more professors. During one of the meetings, I asked one of the participants if they knew other professors who they believed possessed the study criteria. They suggested a professor who was near her office. She called him over and after a brief conversation, we scheduled a meeting to discuss the study. At that moment, I did not ask him to participate because I needed to review the study's expectations and answer their questions. Ultimately, he also agreed to participate and completed the consent form. While three participants was sufficient to continue the study, I recognized there was not much variation in the sample. The characteristics that I considered to achieve maximum variation included race, gender, and ranking (e.g., assistant, associate, full professor) as these factors can highly impact critical teaching (Gerkin & Kierkus, 2011; Patton & Catching, 2009). Despite my efforts, I did not achieve variation in the sample. I continued the

study with the three participating assistant professors who visibly did not have racially-marginalized backgrounds (e.g., two White female professors and one non-White, non-Black male professor).

The Study Participants

The following three HSU professors agreed to participate in this study: Dr. Sanders, Dr. Taylor, and Dr. Park. I refer to these pseudonyms throughout when referencing the study participants. In the following sections, I provide information on individual cases related to the study criteria and other information that relate to the study (i.e., demographics). All the provided information reflects professors' experiences up to the time of the study.

Dr. Sanders. Dr. Sanders is an Assistant Professor of CCJ at HSU, whose research focuses on institutional and societal responses to sex-based crimes and victimization. She is visibly a White woman, who has lived in the northeast region of the U.S. her entire life. After graduating with her bachelor's degree within this decade, she completed her master's and doctoral degrees from a research-focus institution in a U.S. city. While she said her doctoral program trained her to be a researcher, she said "I don't like the pressure of the R1 universities. I always kind of knew I was going to focus more on the teaching aspect." In regards to her criticalness, Dr. Sanders said an undergraduate professor helped her consider the brutality of the death penalty, "And then after a couple days in this class, I was like, 'Oh my God, this is horrible. How can we have this? It's so ineffective and all these issues.'"

Dr. Sanders has taught introductory courses as well as sex crime and research methods courses. I decided to study Dr. Sanders because of her focus on institutional responses to justice-involved people with sex-based convictions and how those responses can further marginalize this population without making the public safer. In this sense, Dr. Sanders focuses on potentially inhumane and ineffective systemic responses to a misrepresented and understudied subset of the population.

Dr. Taylor. Dr. Taylor is an Assistant Professor of CCJ at HSU, who has published and/or presented on female victimization, mental illness, pedagogy, and media representation of crime. She is visibly a White woman, who grew up in the southeastern region of the U.S. Dr. Taylor completed her bachelor's degree fifteen years ago and then completed her doctoral degree in criminal justice within the last five years from a major public research university in the southeastern region of the U.S.

Dr. Taylor has over 13 years of teaching experience as she worked as a teaching assistant during her master's program, and soon after, worked as an adjunct instructor for several years before becoming a tenure-track assistant professor at HSU. She has taught courses on media, domestic violence, and research methods. Additionally, Dr. Taylor manages the field studies component of the program (e.g., internship). Dr. Taylor has been awarded multiple university curriculum grants to design and implement new courses within her department. In recent years, she was recognized for her teaching at HSU.

I decided to study Dr. Taylor because of her application of feminist criminology to understand domestic violence. In addition to women, Dr. Taylor focuses on another population marginalized in the criminal justice system: people with serious mental illnesses. Also, Dr. Taylor is the only study participant with published research on pedagogy and recognition for teaching. Dr. Taylor's experiences with both CCJ and educational research is reflected in a quote when she described her motivation to become a professor, "I didn't really know whether I wanted to go into a research position, or whether I wanted to go into an academic position." Since then, Dr. Taylor has produced scholarship on teaching and learning as well as CCJ programs (i.e., assessments, evaluations). Given Dr. Taylor's extensive background in CCJ education and research compared to the other study participants, Dr. Taylor provided insights on how one's critical teaching can evolve across several years.

Dr. Park. Dr. Park is an Assistant Professor at HSU, whose research has focused on victimization and comparative criminal justice. Dr. Park is a non-White male who graduated with

a master's and doctoral criminal justice degree from a major public research university in the Midwest within this decade. He has spent some significant time in the U.S. as well as abroad in his home country. His experiences with criminal justice consists of mostly research and teaching and no field experience. I recruited Dr. Park when Dr. Sanders introduced us and we scheduled a meeting to discuss the study (e.g., snowball sampling). I decided to study Dr. Park because he was teaching research methods, which gave me the opportunity to examine how equity-based teaching may look like in a course that does not typically include critical perspectives. Additionally, the research methods course is a requirement and I am interested in understanding how critical teaching can impact all students. Also, along with victimization, Dr. Park's research is on topics that are not regularly present in mainstream media or discourse—potentially indicating the presence of critical perspectives on CCJ. There are other aspects of Dr. Park's background and work that are relevant to this study; however, to better assure his confidentiality, I have decided not to include them in the dissertation.

Data Sources and Collection

In a case study, researchers are expected to collect data from multiple sources in order to conduct an in-depth analysis of the examined phenomenon (Yin, 2003). As shown in Table 2, I collected data from formal and informal interviews with participating professors, their CVs, syllabi, course materials, class observations, and student focus groups and interviews. The multiple data sources allowed me to do data triangulation—the corroboration of different sets of data that support the claims emerging from the cases (Yin, 2014). This, in turn, strengthened the study's construct validity. In the following subsections, I define each data source as well as the data collection process for each source. I also provide examples of how the data sources informed the study. Please refer to Appendix A for the data collection timeline. At the end of the study, I will send each participating professor a letter thanking them for their contributions to the research. Refer to Appendix R for the letter.

Table 2: Data sources informing the multi-case study

Professor interviews
Professors' curriculum vitae (CVs)
Course syllabi
Course materials (i.e., assignments, quizzes, essay, etc.)
Classroom observations
Student focus groups and interviews
Focus group students' demographics

Professor Interviews

I conducted two semi-structured interviews with each participant. Semi-structured interviews included questions related to the conceptual framework and follow-up questions depending on participants' answers (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). This allowed for a natural flow of conversation while at the same time using the interview protocol to maintain the conversations within reasonable boundaries of the study's purpose. The first interviews were approximately 60 minutes each, and the second formal interviews were about 80 minutes each. They were audio recorded, and then professionally transcribed by a third party. Informal interviews occurred before and after class sessions and were often related to the day's lesson and/or my observations. The informal interviews were not audio recorded, but at times, I recorded voice memos after our conversations to capture the details of the conversations and my initial interpretations of them.

Semi-structured Interview 1 of 2. The first interview took place at the start of Fall 2018. The first interview (Appendix G) included the same questions for all participants, which were based on the problem statement and literature review. Prior to the interviews, I reviewed participants' CVs and syllabi to customize the interview protocol for each participant. This

reflexivity allowed me to explore topics that are unique to each participant. For example, reviewing Dr. Sanders' syllabi for both her courses allowed me to construct questions about her experiences teaching lower- and higher-level students. Some questions related to professors' pedagogical and disciplinary beliefs, while other questions focused on specific teaching strategies and their perceived classroom experiences. I also included questions related to how professors learn about the subject matter, pedagogy, injustices, and their socio-political contexts. The interview also had questions on how professors, if at all, connected their teaching with other job responsibilities such as research and college-service. Lastly, I asked questions on how they perceive institutional, disciplinary and other contextual factors support their teaching.

Semi-structured Interview 2 of 2. The second formal interview with the professors took place during finals week in December 2018. Prior to this interview, I reviewed the first interview and class observation notes and customized the protocol to account for interesting and/or unclear concepts that pertained to the individual professors. Thus, the second interview was based on the research questions and ideas that stemmed from the professors and their classrooms. For instance, in our second interview, I asked Dr. Sanders about the burden to challenge students' punitive views when certain students are absent in the classroom. I developed these questions when I observed Dr. Sanders facilitating a class discussion that was dominated by students' support for the militarization of police and not experiencing pushback from the absent student, Marina. Marina often inserted less punitive, more critical perspectives. As such, Dr. Sanders had to challenge students directly and not depend on other students for the counter-argument. The customization of some interview questions allowed me to adapt to professors' unique teaching experiences and potentially capture data important to the case, but not reflected in the initial research design (Rubin & Rubin, 2012; Yin, 2003). Refer to Appendix Q for the protocol for the second interview.

Professors' CVs

I also collected professors' curriculum vitae (CVs). I asked professors to send me their CVs prior to the first interview. Professors use CVs in a professional capacity to list their work history, productivity within the discipline, awards, among other professional endeavors (Cañibano & Bozeman, 2009; Eduan, 2017). CVs were important for this study because they provided information about professors' actions that cannot be captured in interviews due to lack of time and memory. Thus, the supplemental nature of CVs added an extra dimension to understanding professors' professional development (Cañibano & Bozeman, 2009). As reflected in the codebook (Appendix F), I noted professors' exposure to topics of race, gender, class or other similar topics and developed questions according to those experiences. For example, I noticed Dr. Taylor's extensive scholarly work on gender-based violence and asked her how this work had impacted her teaching. As such, the CVs positioned me to target specific moments of professors' teaching and scholarly development.

Professors' Syllabi

In addition to professors' CVs, I collected the syllabi of the courses I observed. A syllabus sets the tone for the entire semester as it conveys the expectations necessary for students to successfully complete the course (Imasuen, 1999). In other words, instructors—via their syllabi—set out the roadmap of their courses. The roadmap can include assignments, readings, exams, and the class-by-class lessons. I accounted for content relevant to this study, which included, but not limited to critical perspectives professors integrated into the coursework; the instructional method in which those perspectives were presented; and in what ways professors assessed student learning. I also accounted for the chronological order of the content as scaffolding strategies can play a significant role in student learning—particularly for an critical pedagogy (Mezirow, 2006). In this study, Dr. Sanders mentioned her discontent with the sequence of her Drugs and Criminal Justice course because she said she spent too much time on drug use and not enough time on systemic issues.

Course Materials

Additionally, I collected course materials such as readings, assignments, exams, quizzes, and handouts during the class observations. The materials that were not handed out in class were collected via email. The course materials were not students' completed assignments as this study is focused on professors' actions regarding curriculum design and not on students' academic work. Instructors often choose the course material based on what content they believe students should know and assessment strategies they believe best measure student learning (Haney et al., 2002). For this study, as reflected in the codebook (Appendix F), I noted the critical content professors included in the course and their design of the assignments (i.e., question types). Additionally, I collected course materials that appeared relevant to critical pedagogy, but not reflected in my conceptual framework such as Dr. Park's small, in-class assignments that served as preparatory work for larger lab assignments. This reflexive approach allowed me to adjust and capture important information that I would have otherwise missed. The course materials enabled me to triangulate the data with the interviews and class observations to provide an in-depth understanding of the teaching and learning that occurred in the course (Creswell, 2014; Yin, 2003).

Class Observations

I also conducted approximately 10 non-participatory classroom observations for each of the four courses I observed. I observed Dr. Sanders teach in two different courses as it was an opportunity to observe her teaching in a required, lower-level criminology course and compare it to her upper-level, elective Drugs course. The non-participatory nature of the observations allowed me to solely focus on the observation process and gather rich and descriptive field notes on teaching and learning in a natural setting (i.e., the classroom) (Creswell, 2014; Krathwohl, 1998). Furthermore, class observations positioned me to triangulate the data with the interviews and course materials, and make "coherent justification for themes" that reflect professors' critical teaching (Creswell, 2014, p. 201).

In regards to what courses I observed, I had a preference to observe required courses as I am interested in understanding professors' experiences teaching equity to all CCJ students. I observed two required courses, Dr. Sanders' criminology introductory course and Dr. Park's research methods course. For participants who did not teach a required course, we determined which one of their courses best aligned with my research goals. For Dr. Taylor, I observed her upper-level mental health course, which focused on a population marginalized in the criminal justice system, people with serious mental illnesses. I also observed Dr. Sanders' drugs course because she mentioned she was going to use critical views to teach about the war on drugs and the criminalization of drug use. To determine the specific class lessons to observe, each professor and I reviewed the course syllabus and chose class sessions that most aligned with critical content and other sessions professors considered important for students to meet learning goals relevant to the study's focus.

To obtain data from students during class observations, I aimed to get consent from all students in the observed courses. At the start of the first class observation, the professors stepped out of the class and I took about ten minutes of class time to explain to the students my presence and the nature of the study. At this time, I passed out informed consent forms for class observations (Appendix J) to all students, which had important information about the study and their role and expectations as potential participants. I then proceeded to explain my role as a non-participant observer is to not interfere in their class time, but rather to take observational notes on what students and their professor say and do during class time. Lastly, I explained students' grades will not be impacted whether or not they decided to participate in the study and that I will not inform their professors whether or not they consented to class observations. I then provided students with several minutes for them to ask questions, and read and sign the informed consent form. No students asked any questions. I then collected each consent form individually and checked if the student consented to the class observations. Collecting each form individually allowed me to identify the students who did not provide consent. Once I

collected all the consent forms, I asked the professor to return to the classroom and then I proceeded to observe the class. At the following class, I provided each student with a copy of the consent form.

All of Dr. Taylor's students signed consent forms and all, but one of Dr. Sanders' students signed consent forms. For Dr. Park's class, about half the students did not sign consent forms; therefore, I decided to not take detailed notes on the students. Instead, I took general notes on Dr. Park's students' classroom interactions and did not collect students' names. To ensure I accurately tracked consenting students' classroom interactions, I created a map of the class' seating arrangement and added it to classroom observation guide (Appendix I). I doubled checked students' names and seating arrangement with professors before the first few class sessions until I became acquainted with the students. I asked professors about all the students' names and seating locations and did not indicate whether or not a student consented to the class observations. Once I became acquainted with the students, I was able to take notes on them even if they moved seats. I communicated with professors, Drs. Sanders and Taylor through the add and/or drop deadline to identify new students who may not have been in attendance during my initial presentation of the study and distribution of consent form. There were no new students who enrolled after my initial study presentation.

While my attendance to approximately 10 classes per professor allowed students to meet me, ask questions about the research, and acclimate themselves to my presence, my presence may have inhibited students' willingness to participate. Therefore, I was conscientious about sitting in an area of the classroom where I was able to hear and see everyone, but not be too invasive (Krathwohl, 1998). I identified my sitting position for all classes in the seating diagram. I used the class observation guide (Appendix I), adapted from Castillo-Montoya (2013), to capture the professors' and students' comments and behaviors as they happened in real time. The guide also had space to note my reflections as well as connections to the conceptual framework. Lastly, I audio recorded all class observations. At a later date, I reviewed

the audio recordings for accuracy and filled in missing data I did not capture during the observations.

Student Focus Groups & Interviews

I also collected data from student focus groups and interviews. A focus group is a specialized group interview that is used to learn about how a particular set of individuals think and react to ideas presented to them—specifically ideas about experiences that all participants share (Krathwohl, 1998). A major advantage of a focus group is that participants' answers can stimulate others to add missed information to initial responses—resulting in a detailed account of the examined cases (Krathwohl, 1998; Merriam, 2012). Focus groups also allowed me to efficiently collect data from multiple individuals at one time. However, focus groups can be hard to manage as certain participants can dominate the conversations, while others remain silent—especially when the topics are controversial (Krathwohl, 1998). As such, I was mindful of the domination and tension that arose in the discussion and took steps to create a supportive and inclusive space that may have encouraged students to share their thoughts about the topics in constructive and respectful ways. This meant I did not use confrontational language if I disagreed with students' viewpoints, and used supportive, encouraging language when I noticed a student wanted to express marginalized views (Rubin & Rubin, 2014).

I initially explained the student focus group to the class prior to my first class observation. During this presentation, I provided an information sheet about the student focus group to all students, which had space for interested students to fill in their contact information (Appendix K). I then explained the purpose of the student focus group will be to understand their shared experiences as students enrolled in the same CCJ course. I also explained the expectations of focus groups such as the opportunities for students to answer my questions, hear other student's responses, and/or discuss among themselves. I stated the eligibility to participate in the focus groups: students had to be over 18 years old and be enrolled as a CCJ student. Finally, I told the students that I would not tell their professor whether or not they

participated in the focus groups and that their grades would not be affected whether or not they participated.

To schedule the student focus groups, I emailed (Appendix L) students who filled in their contact information in the student focus information sheets (Appendix K). The email (Appendix L) had a doodle poll link to collect information on students' availability. I then sent an email (Appendix M) to all students who completed the poll with a final decision on date and location. I also attached the consent form for the student focus group to this email, which allowed students time to review information regarding the study and focus group, and ask questions. I scheduled five focus groups, but two of them were attended by only one student. Thus, I conducted two single-student interviews and three two-student focus groups. In total, I interviewed eight students and at least one student per professor.

I conducted the student focus groups in late October and early November. By this date, students had been in the course for about two months and had enough classroom experience in the course to provide some feedback on their professor's teaching. To start the focus group, I described the study and the general functions and expectations of a focus group. I then handed out consent forms specifically for the student focus group (Appendix N) and provided several minutes for students to read, sign and return consent forms. The focus groups lasted approximately 30 minutes each. The questions related to students' experiences studying CCJ, their perceptions about the course content and their professors' teaching strategies. Refer to Appendix O for the focus group protocol. I served as the facilitator of the focus group and guided the discussion, while providing some time for the students to talk among themselves (Rubin & Rubin, 2014). I audio recorded the focus groups and interviews, and then had them professionally transcribed by a third party with a confidentiality agreement. The student focus groups yielded meaningful insights on how professors' attempt to enact critical teaching can impact students.

Focus group demographic questionnaire. At the end of the focus group, I asked student participants to fill out a demographic questionnaire. Refer to Appendix P for the document. The questions captured students' age, grade, race, gender, and ethnicity. I also asked students if they were recipients of Pell grants and if their parents hold college degrees. The questions had an open-ended option for the answers to allow students to self-identify beyond the options I provided. This information was important to gather because students' identity can play a significant role in their career choices, motivation as CCJ students, and the course content they are willing to discuss (Gabbidon, Penn, & Richards, 2003; Tartatro & Kimmel, 2003). Thus, the demographic make-up of the classroom can influence professors' teaching and class discussions. For this study, all, but one student participants were women and none of them listed law enforcement as their career choice though it is the most popular career aspiration among CCJ students. Also, four of the eight student participants listed themselves as Pell grant recipients and three are first-generation college students. In order to match students' comments during focus groups with their demographic information, I asked all students to write their names on their demographic questionnaires and asked focus group students to state their names whenever they spoke during the focus group interviews.

Data Sample and Processing

In Appendix H, I present the specific details on the data sample I collected to examine and understand critical teaching in CCJ education. As I collected data, I organized them for analysis. When I received course materials (i.e., syllabus, assignments), I masked identifiable information, changed professors' names and research site into pseudonyms, and then uploaded the documents to online folders pertaining to each of the professors. As the study progressed, I transferred all audio recorded files to my computer. For security, I password protected the folders with the data and backed them up onto an external drive that is also password protected. I sent audio-recorded interviews to a professional transcription company. When I received the transcribed versions, I listened to all audio recordings against the transcripts to ensure

accuracy. I then changed identifiable information into pseudonyms. I added edited transcripts as well as other notes and related documents to the online folders I created for each professor. For the class observations, I listened to the audio files with the observation guide in-hand and filled in professors' and students' comments and behaviors that I had missed in the initial class observations. I then changed all students' names into pseudonyms.

Once the interview transcripts, class observation guides, and course materials were cleaned and masked, I uploaded them onto Nvivo, a Computer Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS). Such a database is used to organize and code the data as well as present the data for independent inspection, which enhances the study's trustworthiness (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). In addition to the database, I also used Microsoft Excel to establish and maintain a chain of evidence throughout data collection. The chain of evidence was a mechanism that allowed me to sort the collected data in a way that aligned with the conceptual framework, research questions, and case study protocol (Yin, 2003). Therefore, I am able to follow how the collected data connects with different areas of the multi-case study design. Like a database, a chain of evidence can also enhance trustworthiness (Yin, 2003).

Protection of Human Participants

The privacy and confidentiality of the study participants and research site were essential for me. I designed my study to ensure participants' privacy and confidentiality and to minimize risks to them. I underwent training (certificate 2818788) by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) on human subjects' protection. I also completed the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) for Social and Behavioral Researchers. Additionally, prior to this study, I worked on multiple studies on human subjects and had to protect subjects' privacy, confidentiality, and minimize risks. These past experiences have prepared me to recognize and address issues with participants' discomfort, risk and securing identifiable information. Refer to Appendix S for NIH and CITI certification documents.

Before I started collecting data from study participants, I received IRB approval from the research site, HSU, in July 2018, which was then reviewed and approved by UConn's IRB. After IRB approval from both institutions, I recruited student participants and then received informed consent from all study participants prior to collecting any data. I also provided participants with copies of consent forms for the interviews, class observations, and/or student focus groups, which described the study as well as participants' rights, benefits, and risks (Appendices E, J, and N).

Privacy and Confidentiality

I took several steps to protect participants' privacy. For one, I allowed participating professors to choose the location for the interviews as some questions related to their experiences in the department and institution. I also protected their privacy by not referencing other study participants though they mentioned each other during our conversations and interviews. In addition to protecting professors' privacy, I also took steps to protect students' privacy. For instance, I regularly spoke with professors after class, and at times, professors referred to students in the class. However, I made sure to wait until all students had exited the classroom before starting after-class conversations. I also did not tell professors which students participated in the focus groups and did not discuss the content of the focus groups.

While inside the classroom, I did not speak to any student who participated in the student focus groups or interviews because I did not want the professors to know which students were scheduled to participate in the student focus groups and interviews. Instead, my communication with students was through emails and/or text messages. Lastly, I conducted three of the five student focus groups and interviews at a library study room—a different building than where the department and classes were housed. The other two student focus groups were conducted at the CCJ department's conference room, but I directed students to use an entrance that did not require them to walk by the professors' offices. Also, for one focus group, I used the conference room when participating professors were away at a conference.

To provide all study participants and the research site with confidentiality, I used pseudonyms for all study participants and the research site. I also masked the course numbers and names listed in all course materials (i.e., syllabus, assignments, exams). I collected all the data and was the only person responsible for handling the data. I have kept all study records in a location that needs multiple passwords in order to obtain the records. I created a master document that links real names and pseudonyms which is located in a separate and secure location. The computer hosting study files also has password protection to prevent access by unauthorized users. Data that has been shared with other people for peer debriefs included pseudonyms and no real names were shared with them.

The master documents and audiotapes will be destroyed after 5 years. Other study records (e.g., interview transcripts with pseudonyms) will be kept indefinitely. At no point in time will I reveal the identity of any study participants to the participating professors, to students, or to anyone else. I will do my best to protect the confidentiality of the study participants, but I do acknowledge that I cannot guarantee 100% confidentiality. Confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties.

Minimizing Risks to Participants

Given the interviews and class observations, the professors in this study may have felt vulnerable discussing topics they feel passionate about, but have limited knowledge in (i.e., equity and teaching). Additionally, at the time of the study, they were non-tenured assistant professors answering questions about institutional and departmental resources. Therefore, I was mindful of creating a supportive environment where participants could engage in productive conversations without feeling defensive. For instance, in after-class conversations with professors, I regularly reminded myself, and at times, made explicitly clear to the professor that my goal of the study was not to be evaluative of their teaching performance. As suggested by a dissertation committee member, I asked professors probing questions about their thoughts on

the day's lesson and areas of improvement. This way, the professors were able to reflect on their own teaching without my insights on whether or not their teaching was effective.

In regards to students, I observed them in the classroom setting and spoke to several of them in the student focus groups and interviews. On the day I obtained their informed consent for the class observations, I asked the professor to step out of the classroom, so professors would not know which students consented or not. I also mentioned to the students that I will not inform the professor on what students consented and also explained their grades will not be affected. In the student focus groups and interviews, I asked students evaluative questions about their professors' teaching. I noticed students would include and sometimes repeat compliments about their professors while expressing their critiques. During these times, it seemed as if students were uncomfortable with critiquing their professors. Therefore, I explained to students that their perspectives about professors' areas of improvement can be useful for improving college teaching and reassured them that I will not tell their professors who participated in the student focus groups and interviews.

Data Analysis

In qualitative research, data analysis happens concurrently with data collection (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Therefore, throughout the data collection phase and after, I wrote analytic memos on the interviews, course materials and class observations notes. More specifically, I summarized what I saw and heard in the interviews, course materials, and class observations. I then wrote statements, keywords, and identified quotes that seemed to reflect the essence of the data source. Below, in Table 3, is an example of a memo on one of Dr. Sanders' Criminology classes on control theories.

In addition to analytic memos, I also engaged in member checking in which I followed up with participants to clarify unclear aspects of their teaching in an attempt to minimize the chances of missing or misinterpreting participants' experiences (Birt et al., 2016; Harvey, 2015

Miriam, 2012). I used different member checking procedures. For one, I added clarifying questions to professors' second interview based on my class observations and/or student focus groups (Doyle, 2007). For instance, for Dr. Taylor, I added a question about the documentary worksheet based on students' shared concerns about the worksheet preventing them from paying attention to the film. I also asked professors clarifying questions directly after a class observation and engaged in conversations about the lesson I had just observed.

Table 3: Class observation memo

Class	Summary	What am I thinking?	Keywords
Control Theories	Lesson on Control Theory. States there are a lot control theories because it's easy to measure, but doesn't explain why it's easy to measure. Explains that the theory assumes people are fundamentally selfish and pleasure seekers. Ask questions on theories from previous lessons that connects to that assumption and students answer correctly. If everyone is motivated to commit crime, Hirschi's Social Bond Theory ask why people DO NOT commit crime. Crime occurs when an individual's bond to society is weak or broken. 4 elements of bonds:	Brings in knowledge earlier in the semester. Recall questions. A theory mirroring strength-based, resilient perspectives. Intertwining previous discussed theories to further explain scenario. Lecture heavy (why so much especially for the "different" one)	recall questions; macro; rigor

The analytic memos and member checking resulted in inductive codes—codes that directly derive from the data. Inductive codes allowed me to capture ideas relevant to the research and participants' lives, but may not have been captured with my initial conceptual framework (Saldaña, 2016). For instance, I added the code “Ensuring compliance of coursework” after I heard professors say to me and their students that they added assignments and/or quizzes to make sure students completed homework and attended class prepared to discuss the content. These are strategies that I had not accounted for in my initial conceptual framework. Once I felt familiar with initial reviews of the data, I developed a preliminary codebook with inductive and deductive codes based on the conceptual framework.

I then proceeded to work on establishing intra- and inter-reliability. This process helped to ensure the accuracy of my codes and that the replication of the study can have reasonably similar conclusions (Yin, 2003). For the intra-reliability process, I coded the first half of Dr. Sanders' first interview, class observation notes on one of her classes, and her journal assignments. I used multiple data sources to make sure all the codes in the codebook had a chance to be applied and potentially refined. A week later, I conducted a second cycle of coding. I then compared my own coding and made changes to codes and their definitions to better capture the data. For example, I originally had a code to capture professors' perceptions on how professors perceive their students' experiences in the course, which I named "instructors' thoughts about student learning." I recognized the code was too broad as I applied it frequently in both rounds of coding. Thus, I reviewed the coded excerpts and determined professors were sharing their perceptions about their students' engagement in the classroom and about their students' academic capabilities. This review led me to create two new codes to replace the original code: "belief about students' engagement" and "belief on academic aptitude." I made similar changes to other codes.

After intra-reliability, I worked on inter-reliability with two graduate students, who had relevant knowledge on teaching and learning in higher education and had experience doing research on topics similar to the ones in this study. I worked with each graduate student separately and for slightly different purposes. I asked both coders to list their rationales for the applied codes as it made it easy for coders to recall their thinking at a later debriefing meeting. The goal was not to reach complete agreement among the coders, but to explore and potentially develop alternative ways of viewing the data and identify codes and definitions that need clarification in order to accurately capture the data (Tracy, 2010). In turn, this cross-checking process enhanced the trustworthiness of the study.

With one graduate student, I shared the same Dr. Sanders' sources I used for intra-reliability, an updated codebook, and asked them to code the data. After they coded, I reviewed

the coding and took notes on similarities and differences in our coding. We then met to discuss the coding and I made some changes to the codebook as a result. For instance, the coder recognized I had no codes to capture instances when professors used their lived experiences while teaching; therefore, I created a new code: presence of professors' lived experience. We also discussed the coder's confusion with the dialogue-based codes. They specifically mentioned the definitions for the "interactive" and "non-interactive" codes did not enable them to know when classroom dialogue goes from non-interactive to interactive and vice-versa. I considered their feedback, read literature on the classroom dialogue and updated the codebook accordingly.

I then gave the second graduate student only the class observation notes to code for dialogue-based codes. At this time, I also re-coded the dialogue-based codes for the same class observation notes. After we both coded independently, we met to discuss similarities and differences in our coding. I found we both applied the codes in similar ways and I did not make any significant changes to the codebook. Due to intra- and inter-reliability procedures, I went from 69 codes in my initial codebook to 54 codes in the final version of the codebook. The 54 codes cut across different categories related to professors' teaching beliefs, perspectives, and actions. Some codes related to their beliefs about student learning, while some action codes related to reflective practices and the integration of critical perspectives. Refer to Appendix G for a sample of the codebook.

Once I finalized the codebook, I proceeded to independently code all of the data. Throughout coding, I recorded analytic memos, which helped me identify unclear aspects of the research. For instance, while coding Dr. Taylor's quizzes, I wrote memos about potentially coding the quiz questions incorrectly. This led me to have a conversation with my brother, a middle-school teacher with over ten years of classroom experience. I asked him if all questions regarding content in a reading book should be considered "knowledge/recall" questions regardless if instructor is asking "why" questions. He explained that if the student can point to

specific parts of the book to answer the question, then it should be considered a knowledge-based question. As such, I re-coded the quizzes as most questions required students to refer to the book to answer the questions.

The analytic memos also resulted in analytical questions such as “What content do professors use to provide students with a realistic portrayal of the criminal justice system?” These broader questions allowed me to see possible connections between the emerging themes and the research purpose (Neumann, 2009; Winkle-Wagner, Sulè, & Maramba, 2014). Furthermore, analytical questions helped me generate initial interpretations that were important to keep in mind as I proceeded into the second cycle of coding (Neumann, 2009).

The purpose of the second cycle of coding was to “develop a sense of categorical, thematic, or theoretical” understanding of the data (Saldaña, 2016, p. 234). Therefore, I used pattern coding to identify the cases’ dominant narratives, patterns of action, and networks of interrelationships. I then proceeded to develop “meaningful and parsimonious meta themes” (Saldaña, 2016, p. 236). To make pattern coding possible, I selected all 12 belief codes and then strategically selected 8 action codes that most reflected professors’ actions and the conceptual framework. I proceeded to reduce all data points within the 20 selected belief and action codes into small statements that briefly described the data points in each case. I then developed short memos that reflected the data points that cut across all three cases. Finally, I used the memos to write an analytic statement for each of the 20 codes, which captured the essence of how each code manifested in all three cases. I then reviewed and re-arranged the 20 analytic statements in order to identify patterns and develop themes about critical teaching. Refer to Appendix T for an example of how I reduced the data points into analytic statements. At this point, I acknowledged and articulated the distinction between emergent themes and the present literature.

Trustworthiness of Study

I adopted research methods that assured the production of trustworthy and insightful research claims. Below, I discuss the study's trustworthiness as it relates to credibility, confirmability, and reliability. I describe the steps I took to enhance the study's trustworthiness.

Credibility

Credibility refers to the researcher's confidence in that findings indeed derived from the cases (Meyer, 2001). The main threat to credibility in qualitative research is that the analysis may not be open to scrutiny because "the researcher can always provide a plausible account and, with careful editing, may ensure its coherence" (Meyer, 2001, p. 347). To better ensure credibility, I used well-established and appropriate research methods throughout data collection and analysis. In regards to data collection, I studied the participants through a period of time that included data from multiple interviews, class observations, student focus groups, and course materials. These multiple sources of data allowed me to triangulate the sources and develop credible, well-informed themes and claims about critical teaching (Creswell, 2014; Yin, 2014).

I also strengthened the study's credibility during data analysis. I periodically engaged in member checking-asking study participants clarifying questions about teaching, learning, and anything else that was unclear in their interviews, class observations, and/or course material, that may be important to their teaching (Harvey, 2015). Thus, member checking helped ensure the study's findings accurately depict professors' experiences. For example, Dr. Park said the following in our first interview, "I talk to some of my colleagues, not a lot. But sometimes I try to get their advice." Once I became aware that he received the weekly lab assignments from a colleague, I asked clarifying questions about the changes he made to the assignments and his perceptions about their impact on student learning. As such, I gathered information on a social interaction that does not happen often, but may be important to Dr. Park's teaching development-learning from and adjusting to colleagues' assistance with teaching. In addition to member checking during data collection, I also shared emergent themes and findings with each

professor with the intention to incorporate their feedback. All three professors agreed with the study's themes and did not provide any feedback.

Confirmability

Confirmability is defined as the level of confidence that the researcher limited their biases. As such, the primary threat to confirmability is the researcher's biases. To strengthen the study's confirmability, I adopted self-reflective practices to monitor my interpretive biases (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). These reflective practices included debriefs with peers and journaling to account for my reactions and biases to participants' beliefs, actions, and lived experiences. For instance, while journaling about Dr. Park's deficit-oriented comments about students, I recognized that I would need to be intentional about asking Dr. Park about his own behaviors and how they can support or hinder student learning. This reflexive practice helped me not become distracted by his deficit-oriented views, which can trigger discomfort for me given my past experiences with similar instructors.

Additionally, I enhanced confirmability by meeting with committee members to debrief about study decisions and initial interpretations (Merriam, 2009). A meeting with one committee member led me to research "decomposing" in teaching in order to understand how professors, if at all, break down the content into smaller parts to support student learning. Lastly, the member checks I conducted throughout data collection and analysis also enhanced the study's confirmability (Creswell, 2014).

Reliability

Reliability is the confidence in which the same study can be conducted by another researcher (Yin, 2003). Given my interpretative approach in this study, it is difficult for two or more researchers to produce the same interpretations. This can be especially true where there is a lack of clear and detailed documentation—particularly on data collection (Yin, 2014). Therefore, I took steps to provide detailed documentation and increase the chances other researchers can reasonably reach similar conclusions. For one, I developed a case study

protocol (i.e., the study proposal), which helped me maintain the focus on the intended phenomenon as the case study protocol included the study's background, data collection, contexts and other aspects of the study (Yin, 2003). I also enhanced reliability by uploading all study documents and data onto a database, Nvivo, which helped organize the wide-range of data. I also established a chain of evidence-a method to organize and keep track on how specific data is reflected in different areas of the research process (Yin, 2003). Refer to Appendix U for a sample of the chain of evidence. Additionally, I enhanced the study's reliability by refining professors' interview questions prior to conducting the study, which involved peer debriefs; a matrix to check the alignment between interview and research questions; and piloted interview protocols. This process allowed me to assure clarity of questions, to discard leading questions, and to ensure the questions can result in data that would help me address the research questions (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). Lastly, the intra- and inter-reliability procedures as described in earlier in the chapter also enhanced the study's reliability.

Study Limitations: Generalizability and Transferability

Generalizability and transferability are synonymous and they refer to how the research findings can be applicable to other contexts, times, and populations (i.e., statistical generalization) (Creswell, 2013). However, given their small sample size, case study research can expand the theoretical or conceptual principles that guided the research (i.e., analytical generalization) (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). To enhance analytical generalizability, I created matrices to see how all interview questions aligned with the research questions to ensure I collected and analyzed data in ways that expanded the conceptual framework (Merriam, 2014; Yin, 2003). One way I have expanded the conceptual framework is with the inclusion of student retention to further examine and understand critical teaching-particularly in institutions enrolling a high number of students from marginalized backgrounds and communities. The expanded conceptual framework can help researchers conduct future studies on critical teaching in higher education (Neumann & Pallas, 2015)

In addition to ensuring the study expanded the literature, I also enhanced transferability by providing rich, thick descriptions of professors' teaching and students' shared perspectives. I also accounted for contextual factors that can influence professors' teaching and learning (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2003). Lastly, the cross-case analyses also enhanced the study's transferability as the claims cut across all participating professors (Yin, 2003).

While I expand the conceptualization of critical teaching and instructional equity, I do acknowledge study limitations that can impact how the study informs teaching in different contexts. For one, this study took place at one type of institution: a public, regional teaching university. Certain aspects of the study such as instructional equity may look different at institutions with mostly college students, who may have the educational background and/or resources to be complete the traditional college-level coursework (i.e., lecture-based lessons with high-stake assessments). Also, this study did not include racially-minoritized professors, who can often have different experiences compared to the professors in this study. Lastly, in this study, I did not collect students' completed coursework; therefore, I do not know how, if at all, professors' critical teaching influenced students' development as critically-minded professionals.

Chapter 3 Summary

In sum, I designed a qualitative, exploratory multi-case study to examine how three CCJ professors enacted and refined a teaching approach that aimed to prepare students as critically-minded professionals. With an interpretive epistemic lens, I sought to understand CCJ professors' critical teaching through professor and student interviews, classroom observations, and document analysis. These multiple sources of data positioned me to triangulate the study's emerging themes and develop well-established claims. I took steps to enhance the study's trustworthiness. These steps included, but not limited to, inter-reliability, member checking, and reflexive journaling. Given the employed research methods, I conducted a rigorous multi-case

study that produced unique views about critical teaching in higher education, which can expand the literature and practice.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

In this multi-case study, I examined three professors to understand how they enacted and refined teaching practices that helped prepare students as critically-minded professionals. Given the popularity of CCJ programs among college students and the discriminatory impact of the criminal justice system, I decided to study critical teaching in CCJ education to further understand how higher education can address and/or exacerbate social inequities through its preparation of the country's workforce.

Broadly speaking, I found professors have been highly influenced by their students in how they go about teaching. They perceived students as having inaccurate, limited and/or punitive views of CCJ and justice-involved populations due to popular media and personal experiences. In response to students, CCJ professors refined their course content and instructional strategies in hopes to (re)socialize students to have a realistic understanding of crime and crime control. This meant they exposed students to critical perspectives and primary sources that highlighted the discriminatory and harmful effects of CCJ policies and practices. As such, professors in this study strived to (re)socialize students into critical consumers and practitioners of their discipline (i.e., disciplinary resocialization).

Another finding is that these professors recognized many of their HSU students needed academic support to meet the critical learning goals. The professors depended on classroom experimentation to learn teaching practices that can ensure student success in their courses. Given the relatively high percentage of historically-marginalized students at HSU, professors in this study learned they need to attend to what I refer to as their instructional equity to meet critical teaching goals. I define instructional equity as the teaching strategies that support student success among historically-underserved populations. They specifically developed and enacted instructional strategies that positioned HSU students to complete their homework and

regularly attend class ready to discuss the content. Table 4 shows the study's emergent themes and how they inform the individual claims.

Table 4: Themes informing three claims

Themes	Claims
<p>Professors believe students' lived experiences can lead to disciplinary misconceptions.</p> <p>Professors believe they have to teach a realistic depiction of CCJ.</p> <p>Professors taught how CCJ and CCJ-related institutions can be harmful to certain populations.</p> <p>Professors used primary sources to help challenge students' subject-matter misconceptions and deepen learning.</p>	<p>Claim #1: Professors Use the Experiences of Justice-involved People and Practitioners to (re)Socialize Students to Have a "Realistic" Understanding of CCJ.</p>
<p>Professors believe students' lived experiences can lead to under-developed academic skills and knowledge.</p> <p>Professors believe they need to be "conscientious" about student learning and adjust teaching accordingly.</p> <p>Professors believe resources closest to them (e.g., colleagues and themselves) contribute the most to their readiness to teach.</p> <p>Professors believe resources distant from them (e.g., institutional) contribute the least to their teaching development.</p>	<p>Claim #2: Professors Have Knowledge, Dispositions, and Resources that Contribute to their Experimental Capacity in the Classroom.</p>
<p>Professors said they implemented strategies that increased homework completion and student attendance compared to previous semesters.</p> <p>Professors' homework-enhancing quizzes and assignments positioned students to recall, evaluate, and/or apply subject-matter concepts.</p>	<p>Claim #3: Professors increase student success when they enact instructional equity.</p>

Claim #1: Professors Use the Experiences of Justice-involved People and Practitioners to (re)Socialize Students to Have a "Realistic" Understanding of CCJ.

For this study, I wanted to understand how professors go about teaching the subject matter inside the classroom. I specifically examined how professors' beliefs and perceptions shaped their subject-matter teaching. I found professors perceived their students of having an inaccurate, punitive, and/or limited socialization of CCJ that derived from students' communities, families, previous schooling, and/or by popular media. Socialization consists of learning "the knowledge, skills, and dispositions" of a specific community (Weidman, DeAngelo, & Bethea, 2014, p. 43). In this study, professors were concerned about students' disciplinary socialization as captured in Dr. Taylor's quote,

A lot of the students think they're going to go out into the field, they're going to work in police, courts, corrections and they're going to deal with bad people who've done bad things and they all deserve to be locked up...I don't think that they realize that there, it's a whole lot more of other things going on that lead people to the criminal justice system that may not fit into that box.

Here, Dr. Taylor said students possess preconceived ideas that are punitive and not fully accurate about the multiple factors contributing to people's involvement with the criminal justice system. Drs. Sanders and Park also mentioned students' experiences with family and popular media has resulted in students' limited understanding of CCJ.

Given their perceptions about students' disciplinary socialization, professors strived to teach students what they called "a realistic" depiction of CCJ. For professors in this study, this meant they developed and enacted class lessons that highlighted the discriminatory and harmful consequences of CCJ policies and practices. They specifically used the experiences of justice-involved individuals and CCJ practitioners to teach a "realistic" depiction of the subject matter. Additionally, professors used narratives directly from justice-involved individuals and CCJ practitioners and connected those narratives to CCJ concepts and the real world. Thus, professors in this study integrated primary sources into the curriculum to support students' critical understanding of CCJ policies and practices. The professors' approaches to critical teaching aligns with the theoretical foundation of critical pedagogy and similar teaching

approaches. Narratives from historically-marginalized communities can uncover the extent of social inequities (Giroux et al., 2013; Salina, Fránquiz & Rodríguez, 2016).

Teaching critically from a justice-involved and practitioner standpoint. CCJ professors in this study relied on the experiences of justice-involved individuals and CCJ practitioners to show how CCJ institutions and practitioners can be discriminatory and harmful. This critical perspective is not readily present in mainstream media and CCJ education; therefore, these professors presented views that potentially contributed to what they considered a “realistic” portrayal of the discipline (Frederick, 2012; Rosino & Hughley, 2016). Dr. Sanders said, “This system is discriminatory and it's racist. And it's partly because of the foundation and things that we aren't addressing.” She further shared, “I don't tiptoe around issues like that because they need to know. And if they're not aware then I think I've failed.” In this excerpt, Dr. Sanders shared what she believes is fundamental knowledge her students should know: the system can inherently be the cause of the problem (e.g., discrimination). Dr. Taylor also shared a similar sentiment,

I feel like a lot of the stuff in the very beginning really challenges their perceptions of mental health. And they don't realize that...we created this. We had all these institutions, we made policy changes to deal with the problems of those institutions, and now we're right back in a situation where our correctional institutions are mental health institutions.

Here, Dr. Taylor said students should learn how CCJ policies and practices have caused the current problems associated with mental health and the mentally ill population. In this sense, Dr. Taylor attempted to teach her students to view problems with CCJ from a systemic standpoint, which was a view Dr. Park also shared, “I want them to understand that there's more than one or two perspectives besides coming from the traditional law enforcement's view.” As such, professors in this study believed in looking beyond dominant and punitive individual-based perspectives to understand and improve CCJ practices.

In the classroom, I observed professors use content that highlighted the negative impact of CCJ systematic practices on justice-involved individuals. For instance, during the lesson on

Corrections in Dr. Sanders' Drugs course, she facilitated a class discussion on sentencing laws such as mandatory minimum and three-strike laws. Dr. Sanders explained mandatory minimum laws require judges to dismiss "mitigating circumstances" such as "trauma history, educational ability, and mental health." She continued, "Politicians pushed for these based on the idea that some offenders were coming out early and then re-offending. They were connecting crime to spilling out of urban areas and into the suburbs." When the class discussed the problems with mandatory minimum laws, Aubrey said, "[Prisoners] won't act right in prison because good behavior will not get you out." Sarah mentioned the high expense of incarceration, "It's expensive, you know the state will pay for the entire sentence." Bobby said, "The mitigating factors are not considered like age. Ruins younger offenders. A mistake at a young age will result in a long term criminal problem." Dr. Sanders agreed with Bobby and added, "You get rid of mitigating factors like age. So, it ties the judges' hands."

Later in the same class session, Dr. Sanders and students discussed other sentencing practices such as three-strike laws and trial penalty. Students mentioned how three-strike laws can extensively incarcerate "people who are not violent," as Mark said, and how the discriminatory practice of trial penalty is sustained through what Marina has seen in her internship: "Prosecutor and defense attorney just telling everyone to plead guilty." As seen in this class, Dr. Sanders positioned students to place a critical lens onto sentencing practices and identify how they can negatively impact justice-involved individuals. Dr. Sanders addressed numerous topics from a similar critical, systemic standpoint (e.g., war on drugs, militarization of police, the opioid epidemic).

Dr. Taylor also taught her students about the harmful and discriminatory impact of CCJ policies and practices. She specifically focused on the mentally ill, justice-involved population. Furthermore, Dr. Taylor focused on the different systems this population encounters and how those systems do little to prevent this population's persistent recidivism cycle. As evident by the class discussions and the book quizzes (e.g., *Crazy and Crazy in America*), Dr. Taylor's

students possibly learned how the health insurance and the mental health industry can perpetuate re-incarceration. The class also discussed practices within different areas of the criminal justice system that can disproportionately impact this population such as solitary confinement and police's traditional use of force. To end one the lesson on solitary confinement, Dr. Taylor asked a rhetorical question, "What happens when the system itself is causing harm to someone's mental health, what are the consequences of that? Think about that. Over 90% of inmates will re-enter society." As seen in this excerpt and coupled with Dr. Taylor's course content, her students potentially learned how CCJ and mental health systems can, in actuality, exacerbate the mental and social instability of the justice-involved population suffering from mental illnesses. I observed Dr. Taylor incorporate this perspective throughout the course, but due to space, I have presented an abbreviated version of the findings.

While Dr. Park's teaching goals focused on research methods, he also used examples, articles, and assignments that positioned students to learn a "realistic" depiction of CCJ. For instance, to teach students how to read scholarly articles, Dr. Park assigned the research article, "Drinking and drug use by college students: Comparing CJ majors and non-CJ majors." Dr. Park instructed students to break up into small groups to identify two pieces of important information in each of the article's sections (i.e., introduction, methods, discussion, implications) and then explain the information's significance to the class.

Dr. Park and his students proceeded to place a critical lens onto CCJ practitioners as the class discussed future police officers' risk factors of deviant behaviors. One student said, "[the intro] refers to previous info and research on past alcohol and drug use among cops." Dr. Park used this reference to say, "So it's highlighting the stress factors of policing." He then asked, "Why you highlight that?" and a student responded, "They will enforce alcohol and drug use laws and if they engage in this behavior, there may be a high-level of stress that would lead them to break their own rules." Other students mentioned, "Bad influence to other cops" and "abuse of power." Dr. Park agreed and added, "CJ officials are expected to enforce alcohol and

drug use laws, so CJ administrators want to make sure officials do not possess behaviors that will compromise their ethics...You'll lose legitimacy if you engage in these law-breaking behaviors." Dr. Park then asked, "Why are implications important?" Students said college instructors can "teach CCJ majors about alcohol and drug use;" "[officers] can find other ways to cope with stress;" and "[administrators] can assess officers' addictive behaviors." As seen in this lesson, the article coupled with Dr. Park's facilitation potentially helped students place CCJ practitioners under the microscope and understand how their deviant behaviors can impact the public. This is a critical perspective because popular CCJ discourse and literature rarely includes CCJ practitioners as perpetrators of discriminatory and harmful practices.

In another class, I observed Dr. Park teach research methods from another critical standpoint. He assigned an in-class, group activity in which students designed and administered a "two-item" survey on students' perceptions of campus safety at HSU. Thus, the assignment placed the emphasis on what Dr. Park called "the citizen standpoint" or "victim standpoint." Victim perspectives are minimally present in CCJ education; thus, the students in this study engaged with critical disciplinary knowledge that they would not have exposure to elsewhere (Bostaph, Brady, & Giacomazzi, 2014; Gibbs, 2016). As written on the assignment, the students developed survey questions to capture HSU students' "feelings of personal safety, security of personal property, or perceptions of campus police." Once students created the survey, they administered it to students from other groups. Afterwards, they returned to their initial groups and summarized the responses. As seen in Dr. Park's assignments, he taught research methods concepts in ways that possibly positioned students to also learn about crime control from the victim or citizen perspective—contributing to a "realistic" depiction of CCJ.

Teaching critically with primary sources. In addition to teaching the systemic practices contributing to the marginalization of certain populations, professors also relied on primary sources (i.e., first-person accounts) to address students' misconceptions about CCJ. More specifically, Drs. Sanders and Taylor used first-person accounts from justice-involved

individuals and CCJ practitioners to teach a “realistic” portrayal of CCJ. As Dr. Taylor told her students prior to playing a documentary on the daily lives of people with bipolar disorder,

I think the best way to understand the people and the way they are processed is through real-life examples. I can talk about it, but we want to have an accurate representation of what’s going on and seeing it can help with that. Many of us have a misguided view of what’s happening.

As seen here, Dr. Taylor integrated people’s first-person accounts in hopes to address students’ “misguided views.” She used documentaries on people living with serious mental illnesses such as bipolar disorder (e.g., *Of Two Minds, Voices*) and professionals working on treatments (e.g., *Ride the Tiger, Vice: Dying for Treatment*). Dr. Taylor also assigned a documentary on how jails and prisons have become “the unexpected and ill-equipped” mental health institutions (e.g., *The New Asylums*). As described in the film’s webpage, *The New Asylums* follows incarcerated individuals to “prison therapy sessions, mental health treatment meetings, crisis wards, and prison disciplinary tribunals.” Another documentary, *The Released*, follows justice-involved individuals with mental illness on their journey outside of prison. The film highlights people’s ongoing struggle to receive the help they need and how it leads to a cycle of re-incarceration.

In addition to the films, Dr. Taylor’s goal of teaching CCJ through personal narratives was also evident by the worksheets that accompanied each documentary. The worksheet questions were on what Dr. Taylor described as the “most pertinent” content. In the five worksheets I collected, Dr. Taylor assigned 26 questions. From those questions, 11 of them asked students to describe the film subjects’ symptoms as described by them. For example, in the *Of Two Minds* worksheet, Dr. Taylor included the questions, “How do the following individuals describe their symptoms? What are some of the terms or phrases used to describe the way they experience both mania and the depression?” A majority of the questions (15 of 26) asked students to recount film subjects’ experiences with different aspects of their lives (e.g., social, treatment, incarceration) such as the following question from *The New Asylums* worksheet, “The film portrays several individuals who were arrested for minor offenses but

ultimately ended up serving very lengthy sentences in maximum-security facilities. How did these offenders end up with this outcome?" These common questions show Dr. Taylor placed an emphasis on students learning directly from people about how their mental illness can manifest and impact their lives. As seen with these examples, Dr. Taylor regularly used justice-involved individuals and CCJ practitioners as primary sources to challenge students' misconceptions about mental health and the criminal justice system.

Dr. Sanders also used documentaries as well as news clips to present first-person accounts from people involved with the criminal justice system. Instead of worksheets, Dr. Sanders used class discussions to process film subjects' experiences. During these discussions, Dr. Sanders asked students about their preconceived ideas of the given topic. For example, after watching the documentary, *Heroin: Cape Cod, USA*, Dr. Sanders asked, "What were things you were aware of? Weren't aware of? Things that mirrored what we've talked about in class? Haven't talked about?" Bobby responded, "One thing I wrote in my journal was about the guy who doesn't like drugs, but feel like they have to take it for the physical dependency. Shows that this isn't just mind games." As shown in Bobby's response, the film helped some students reflect on their misconceptions about drug addiction.

Other times, students referred to the films to publicly challenge assumptions about drug addiction. For instance, after some students shared their critiques about parents' enabling behaviors in *Heroin: Cape Cod, USA*, Dr. Sanders said, "Parents knew, but they talked about it, how as a parent you always want to help your child. What you want to do is cut them off." Dr. Sanders did not explain why parents should cut off their drug-addicted children and at that moment, Sierra, added, "Parents are aware of what's going on, but parents would rather have them do that in the house. They're safer that way." Dr. Sanders then said, "Yes. They're safer. Rehab isn't free, especially the good ones." As shown in this interaction, the film positioned Sierra to contest Dr. Sanders' and other students' punitive perspective about enabling behaviors and drug addiction.

A few moments later, Ally said, “[The film] shows how subjects had a good, prosperous life, played sports, which contradicts what we’ve been socialized to think about drug users.” Dr. Sanders agreed and asked the students the race of the film’s subjects and a few students responded, “Caucasian.” Dr. Sanders then added, “They were all White, usually middle to upper class. I’ve lived at the Cape. It’s expensive there.” Like Sierra, the film and the class discussion enabled Ally to highlight and challenge dominant assumptions about drug use, race, and class. As represented in the class lesson on *Heroin: Cape Cod USA*, Dr. Sanders used first-person accounts to teach CCJ to help students discuss and unlearn disciplinary misconceptions about CCJ.

Dr. Park differed from the other professors in how he used primary sources. Instead of bringing in narratives from outside the class, Dr. Park positioned students to behave like researchers as they designed and/or executed small studies (i.e., completing lab assignments). In this sense, Dr. Park’s students served as their own primary sources as they engaged in experiential learning. This approach is similar to Drs. Sanders’ and Taylor’s in that all professors connected students to real-world portrayals of the course content. For example, Dr. Park’s students served as primary sources when learning about observational data. Dr. Park instructed students to identify a stop sign or traffic light near their neighborhood and make observations on traffic violations for 20-30 minutes. For the lesson on formatting and citation, Dr. Park had students behave like journal editors and identify and correct APA errors in a scholarly paragraph and reference list. To teach survey research, Dr. Park assigned an in-class, group activity in which students had to design and administer a two-item survey on students’ perceptions about campus safety and police at HSU. As evident by these experiential assignments, Dr. Park regularly positioned students to behave like CCJ researchers as a way to teach research methods. In this sense, Dr. Park’s students served as primary sources of their own learning.

In addition to having students behave like CCJ researchers, Dr. Park incorporated CCJ topics that may have been relevant to students’ lives. Thus, increasing the likelihood that

students served as primary sources as they relied on their own prior knowledge and experiences to make sense of the course content. For example, during the class on theory development, Dr. Park assigned an in-class, group activity in which students had to make a list of cause-and-effects of a phenomenon Dr. Park described to the class as "one that we might have some experiences with: binge drinking in college." When reporting back to the class, students mentioned family, work, psychological, and cultural reasons for binge drinking. For another in-class, group assignment, students reviewed a scholarly article on comparing alcohol and drug use between criminal justice students and non-majors. Dr. Park said he chose the article because he "was thinking about a topic that [students] would feel comfortable, so they could put themselves in that position." As evident by these examples, Dr. Park depended on students' ability to reflect on their daily experiences as college students to understand and engage with the course content. In this sense, Dr. Park, like the other professors in this study, relied on primary sources to help students re-conceptualize their assumptions about certain justice-involved populations and CCJ concepts.

In sum, this claim suggests professors worked to (re)socialize students with more "realistic" portrayals of CCJ than the ones in other areas of students' lives (e.g., family, community, media). To (re)socialize students, professors integrated perspectives from justice-involved individuals and CCJ practitioners that a) highlighted the harmful and discriminatory outcomes of CCJ policies and practices, and b) presented first-person accounts to challenge students' assumptions about highly-criminalized populations (e.g., mentally ill, drug users). With a critical lens on the system and the inclusion of primary sources, professors in this study may have helped their students understand CCJ from a more "realistic" standpoint than their previous socialization.

Claim #2: Professors Have Knowledge, Dispositions, and Resources that Contribute to their Experimental Capacity in the Classroom

A central component of this study was to understand how professors learn to meet their critical teaching goals. I found that professors in this study experimented with different content and instructions inside the classroom to learn what teaching practices help students learn. Once I recognized that experimentation can be key to professors' teaching development, I examined their experimental capacity. I define experimental capacity as the knowledge, dispositions and/or resources that allow an individual to perform a new task within their professional role. Professors in this study showed experimental capacity within their teaching because they a) gained knowledge about their students' academic needs; b) had the disposition to address students' academic needs; and c) had access to supportive collegial and departmental resources. In the following subsections, I present data that highlight professors' perceptions about student needs and their willingness to address those needs in the classroom. Then, I present professors' views about their collegial resources and departmental evaluative practices that have enabled professors to be experimental. Given these emergent themes, professors learn to teach when they have the capacity to be experimental in the classroom.

Knowledge of students' academic needs. Knowledge about their students' academic abilities enabled professors' experimental capacity. The professors in this study believed their students' past schooling had not adequately prepared them for college-level coursework. Dr. Sanders said many of her students at HSU are "non-traditional, coming back to school or went into the military or did something for a couple years," which she says "changes how you address the class" compared to her previous instructor position at a top-tier research university. She further explained that students' "educational background" impacts their learning the most as she said "a lot of them just don't have the foundation for schoolwork and how to do it and what to do." As such, Dr. Sanders believed her students may not have learned appropriate college expectations; and thus, can cause them to struggle to complete the coursework. Dr. Taylor also described students' previous schooling as potentially detrimental to CCJ student learning,

They have courses in criminology at the community college level. Only about 25% start with us and finish with us. So 75% of them are coming out of the community college for at least some of their credits. And they still don't have a realistic perception of the criminal justice system. If I ask them things like, "Is [this state] a violent state?" And they don't realize that it's not, compared to the rest of the country.

Dr. Park also mentioned community colleges as a source of students' under-preparedness, "I had a lot of transfer students too and I'm not trying to bad mouth them, but [local community colleges] don't do a good job at preparing their students, especially in the writing area." As shown with these two examples, professors believed many of their students attend HSU with an under-developed set of disciplinary knowledge and academic skills. In turn, professors in this study considered students' academic readiness when designing and executing their teaching approach.

Disposition to adjust teaching to students' academic needs. Another factor that contributed to professors' capacity to be experimental was their willingness to adjust to students' academic needs. In this sense, they possessed a "conscientious" disposition for engaging in classroom experimentation. For example, Dr. Taylor explained her "responsibility" to review fundamental knowledge students seemed to not have grasped in previous courses,

I feel like part of it I have a responsibility to pause and go over some of this stuff. If I'm trying to make a point, and so I reference some of these kind of basic pieces, I have to take a step back in the lecture and go over some things...There's been some other examples, but it's almost like a moment of disbelief. Like some of the students were like, 'Wait, what?' you know, 'I don't believe you'...I don't want them just to remember facts and figures, but if they're going to present themselves as someone who has a knowledge-base in crime offending, they should at least know how much of this is going on.

Here, Dr. Taylor described her willingness to slow down a lesson to ensure students understand some fundamental facts about criminal justice. She also described adjusting her teaching when discussing a "sensitive subject" (e.g., veterans and mental health). Dr. Taylor said, "I can't help, but be conscientious about it...you gotta walk a real fine line between being honest and forthright, and talking about a sensitive subject." Given some students' "demeanor shifted" during certain lessons, Dr. Taylor said she adjusted her teaching to ensure those students

remained engaged. According to Dr. Taylor, these students had described themselves as a veteran, parent, or someone suffering with mental illness. Thus, Dr. Taylor's teaching adjustments may have been in response to gaining knowledge about her students' lives, not just based on students' behaviors. Nonetheless, Dr. Taylor was willing to adjust her teaching, which can be a central part of experimental capacity.

Dr. Park said he depended on his "human capital" to read his students' verbal and nonverbal "cues" on whether or not they understood the course content. Additionally, as reflected in the following field note, he used informal surveys (e.g., hand raising) to determine the content he would include in the lesson,

[Dr. Park] said that he takes informal surveys with students raising hands to indicate the courses and topics they have taken in previously classes. He then determines how much time to spend on different topics. He might avoid some topics if the students have minimal exposure with them because it will require too much time. He has to pick and choose what to focus on. This is partially influenced by students' background with a topic.

As shown here, Dr. Park had a few different ways to gauge student learning and adjust accordingly, which is indicative of his willingness to adjust to students' academic needs.

Dr. Sanders also shared her willingness to adjust to students' needs. She said she strives to create an inclusive classroom that encourages all students to engage, "I always create an environment where you don't know my leanings, and it's not important, and it's kind of just presenting [the content]." She said this "neutral" approach encourages engagement from students with "liberal" and "conservative" backgrounds as her goal is to not "dissuade students from speaking" and to position them to be "at least thinking about their own opinion." Dr. Sanders further explained her neutrality in the classroom has helped students explore their "preconceived ideas" and "understand issues from all different sides" without feeling defensive. Thus, Dr. Sanders said her students can recognize how "the cons outweigh the pros and then they come around to their own decision versus me just shoving it down their throat." In this

sense, Dr. Sanders is willing to adjust her teaching depending on her students in order to appear socio-politically neutral and not deter any student from engaging.

In addition to professors being “conscientious” about their students’ needs, their experimental capacity was also dependent on their willingness to take a “trial and error” approach to their teaching. Professors said they have learned to teach by experimenting with different content, textbooks, and assignments, and then reflecting on what worked. Dr. Sanders described learning to teach through a “trial and error” approach,

So, all of this stuff, I'm just kind of, like, figuring it out. It's a trial and error. Like, 'Okay. Well, that did not work and I'm going to switch it.' Or, you know, 'This is too much work,' or, 'It's not enough,' or, 'This question is worded poorly.' And I only find that out when I give it to them and they're like, 'No.'

Here, Dr. Sanders described her openness to implement certain strategies and then reflect on her students’ reactions to determine what helped meet her teaching goals. Dr. Sanders’ experimentation was possible because of her willingness to take a “trial and error” approach in the classroom. Drs. Taylor and Park also described their teaching development as a result of “trial and error.” As such, faculty willingness to adjust their teaching can lead to opportunities for professors to recognize gaps in student learning and initiate changes in the classroom.

Collegial resources influencing experimentation. In addition to their willingness, professors’ colleagues also fueled their experimental capacity. Colleagues fueled professors’ capacity by providing spaces to process teaching and acquiring knowledge about effective teaching strategies. For instance, Dr. Sanders talked about learning from departmental colleagues, “We’re very open and get along really well. So that's a nice thing, it's just whoever's there, you go in and you're like, 'Hey, how does this sound like?'" She mentioned an “informal discussion” with Dr. Park, “He was the one who, I think, last semester did assignments for each of his criminology classes. And he was just saying how that worked, like, phenomenally.” This led her to design and implement periodical quizzes in her own criminology course and weekly journal assignments for her Drugs course. Dr. Sanders said she learned journaling helped her

students “became a little bit more aware” and “critical” of CCJ policies, practices, and their “preconceived ideas.” She also learned the journals were inclusive of “quieter students,” which was a critical learning moment as Dr. Sanders’ teaching is largely based on class discussions.

Dr. Park also mentioned learning from colleagues in the department, “I looked at the sample syllabi of my colleagues just to get a good sense given that it was not only research method, but it was also a hybrid, as well as writing intensive. So I wasn't sure, I never taught it before.” Dr. Park said he decided to adopt the weekly lab assignments, which served as one of the “methods” he used to meet students’ “different learning styles.” Furthermore, the lab assignments allowed him to “get a sense” of how much students were learning during the semester and addressing any problems at the moment.

Dr. Taylor said she is “heavily reliant upon conversations that I have with friends and colleagues that actually work in the system out in the field” as they can provide “different perspectives” that she had not considered. Dr. Taylor also said she relies more on her “cohort from my Phd program” than her departmental colleagues “in terms of getting information about how to teach.” Dr. Sanders said she also meets with colleagues from other HSU departments (e.g., sociology, communication, and journalism) “at least once a month, usually for dinner,” to discuss work and teaching strategies. As seen with these examples, professors have depended on their colleagues to learn about teaching. This acquired knowledge and space to debrief seemed to give professors the capacity to experiment and support their teaching development.

Departmental resources supporting experimentation. Departmental evaluative practices were also a contributing factor in faculty having the capacity to experiment with their teaching. As such, departmental resources also contributed to professors’ experimental capacity. As described by Dr. Sander, “the department gives you a little bit more freedom” and would “rather have you try something new than you just stick to the status quo and you never change and it's boring and the students don't care anymore.” She further explained,

[The Department is] very supportive. And they're very aware that you're going to try new things and those new things are going to flop. And that's going to be reflected in your evaluations. Or you're going to have difficult classes. So I think there's a lot more willingness to say, "Okay, well yeah, try it and if it doesn't work, it doesn't work."

As seen in these quotes, Dr. Sanders felt supported by the department to try different teaching strategies in an attempt to encourage student engagement. As noted in the following field note, Dr. Park shared a similar perspective when he described the department's expectations of student evaluations,

Dr. Park went on to explain how the department does not want to see straight 5s in evaluations. They can be suspicious. They want to see some variation as it may indicate that professors are challenging students, not making it easy for them.

At our second interview, Dr. Park described "stellar scores" on student evaluations may indicate to the department that you are an "accommodating and sociable" instructor, but potentially "sacrificing standards for likeability." Therefore, Dr. Park may have felt confident to experiment with new teaching strategies-particularly ones that can improve the course's academic rigor. Dr. Taylor also said potential negative student evaluations does not deter her from implementing new teaching strategies. Instead, she said she has learned to "look at [student evaluations] from more, like, a critical perspective and say, 'All right, what are the thematic patterns that students are talking about that I can adjust?'" She said some of her changes in the classroom such as reducing her lecturing "has legitimately come out of the teaching evaluations as well."

In addition to student evaluations, professors said peer evaluations have also influenced their teaching in positive ways. Dr. Park said the department has "one of the most rigorous or more of multi-faceted approach to [teaching evaluation]" as members from the department's Tenure and Promotions Committee observe all of their courses in a given semester. Dr. Taylor said, "those are also helpful" as she described some of the peer feedback on her "voice projection or the pattern of the class" helped her improve her teaching. Dr. Sanders said peer evaluations have allowed her to demonstrate to the department "you're doing your best and

you're trying to be a good teacher," which she said has reduced "some of that anxiety" connected to student evaluations. As shown through professors' shared views, the department's evaluation process helped professors feel confident to experiment with new strategies without fearing departmental repercussions for negative evaluations.

In sum, professors' teaching development is dependent on their capacity to experiment in the classroom. According to professors in this study, there are particular knowledge, dispositions, and resources that can support their experimental capacity: a) a perceived problem with student academic preparedness (i.e., knowledge); b) faculty willingness to adjust their teaching to students' needs (i.e., disposition); c) a network of colleagues (i.e., collegial resources); and d) departmental evaluative practices that make the faculty feel supported to try new content and teaching strategies (i.e., departmental resources). Given these findings on faculty teaching, professors learn to teach when they gain the capacity to experiment with the resources readily accessible to them.

Claim #3: Professors increase student success when they enact instructional equity.

In this study, I sought to understand how full-time professors learned to meet their critical teaching goals. As shown with Claim 3, professors learned small, frequent quizzes and assignments potentially ensured students completed their homework and regularly attended class ready to discuss the content. I define these homework-enhancing quizzes and assignments as student success strategies as they increased student engagement with the course content and encouraged class attendance (i.e., persistence). In this sense, professors not only incorporated equity into the subject-matter content with critical perspectives, as shown with Claim 1, but also depended on what I refer to as instructional equity to ensure academic success for HSU students. I define instructional equity as teaching strategies that cultivate success among historically-marginalized populations such as Black, Latinx, and low-income college students. Thus, professors supported student success when they enacted instructional equity. In the following subsections, I describe the positive impact of professors' student

success strategies as reflected in their perceptions, their students' perceptions, and the questions within the quizzes and assignments.

Professors perceive small, frequent quizzes and assignments increased student success. Professors in this study considered students not doing their homework as a significant barrier to meeting teaching goals. As described by Dr. Sanders, "I think that's probably something that everybody struggles with, is getting students to put work in outside of class. They just want to come in, listen to lecture, go home and be done." Therefore, professors have experimented with strategies that can enhance students' engagement with their homework. They said small, frequent assignments and quizzes that relate to the homework has increased student engagement, learning, and attendance. As described by Dr. Taylor,

I start a topic with a brief quiz [in class]. So I'll start with just a reading quiz that's maybe three or four questions just to help facilitate the initiation of a conversation, like, 'Here are the pertinent things we're going to talk about in this class.' And to ensure that they've done the reading. You know, if you tie some grade to it they're more likely to do it, but it also kind of helps start the conversation.

As seen here, Dr. Taylor believes frequent quizzes has helped students complete the homework and arrive to class ready for class discussions. Additionally, Dr. Taylor said quizzes supported student attendance because she only administered the quizzes during class time. On days when Dr. Taylor did not provide a quiz, she assigned a graded in-class activity such as a case study assignment or a documentary with the accompanying worksheet of questions. Thus, every class had points connected to them. Dr. Taylor said she learned "by spreading [points] out across every single class meeting, it forces [students] there every class meeting and once they're there, they absorb a whole lot more information."

In addition to maintaining high attendance, Dr. Taylor said the small, frequent quizzes and assignments has also allowed her students to learn content and academic skills (e.g., reading and writing) "comparable to like a graduate reading level, or like a master's degree program ...without the anxiety around a midterm or a final." Thus, Dr. Taylor's strategy can also

regulate students' emotions and stress, which can enable students to learn—particularly for underserved students who have to navigate college with various academic and non-academic stressors (Heller & Cassady, 2017). Lastly, Dr. Taylor said the quizzes and assignments allowed her to intervene on struggling students. She said,

I don't reach out to them directly, but very, very early on, the ones that I get that are not doing well, I write on their quizzes...Sometimes I take a harsher approach. So, sometimes I'll say like, "This is unacceptable. You need to be completing the reading for this course. If we need to talk about it, let's talk about it." Sometimes I try and take a different approach like, "What's going on?"

Dr. Taylor continued to explain how an intervention positively impacted a student from the course I observed,

When I [intervened through the quiz], they turned it around, immediately. Literally the next class meeting, that student had all kinds of questions, and throughout the rest of the semester, you could tell that the student had done the reading, and was purposely asking questions in class to let me know that they were engaged.

As seen here, Dr. Taylor's quizzes and assignments also served as a point of intervention for students who may not be doing the coursework. With this strategy, Dr. Taylor did not have to wait for larger assignments and exams to assess student learning—allowing her to adjust (i.e., “reach out”) in real time. This reflexivity in teaching is crucial for student success (Bensimon, 2012; Mezirow, 2006). In sum, Dr. Taylor perceived her in-class, quizzes encouraged students to do their homework, attend class, and learn without the stress and emotional toll of larger, more traditional assignments and exams. Additionally, the quizzes have allowed Dr. Taylor to identify and intervene on students who are struggling early and throughout the semester.

Dr. Sanders also perceived her strategy of using small, frequent quizzes and assignments supported student success. She administered a reading quiz approximately every other week in her lower-level criminology course. For her Drugs course, she said, “I do journal assignments where they require them to read outside of class.” Dr. Sanders said the weekly journal assignments were “open-ended and mostly opinions,” which she said allowed students

to go beyond “recalling” course content, but instead “criticizing and analyzing” drug policies and their own assumptions. She provided an example of witnessing this learning in the journals,

I think there are certain areas where I could see, not that they is a changing shift, but maybe they became a little bit more aware, like with marijuana and the health effects, because everybody thinks marijuana is fine and it's not, right? It's a drug and you're smoking it and it has all these effects.

Here, Dr. Sanders mentioned a moment when students appeared to reconsider their assumptions about marijuana use and think about the health concerns. This was possibly a moment of critical self-reflection given the drastic increase of marijuana legalization and acceptance in recent years (Daniller, 2019). Lastly, Dr. Sanders said the journals were inclusive of “quieter students,” who tend to not speak in class. This inclusivity can be especially essential for professors who primarily use class discussions like Dr. Sanders. As evident by these examples, Dr. Sanders believed small, frequent assignments—particularly the journals—has helped support student learning through self-reflection and class discussions on students’ critiques of CCJ policies and practices.

Dr. Park implemented small, in-class assignments every week, which he said were “directly in conjunction with lab assignments” due later in the week. Dr. Park said these in-class assignments enhanced student success, “They get their feet wet and they've at least attempted to do [the work] in class, and with my feedback, my interaction, then they could do better [in the homework]. Additionally, Dr. Park said the in-class assignments served as one of the multiple “methods” he used to “reiterate” the course content. He said, “I'm helping them learn a concept using different methods, different contexts” as well as providing outlets for students with “different learning styles.” Lastly, Dr. Park said the student “were happy because [the in-class assignments] gave them more points.” Therefore, the strategy can encourage class attendance as they need to be in class to earn the extra points and counter low scores on other assignments and exams. As shown with Dr. Park’s quotes, he perceived his weekly, in-class assignments cultivated student success as students worked on their own and in groups to

complete smaller versions of the lab assignments given as homework. Coupled with his guidance during the class, Dr. Park believed this strategy helped students successfully complete the course.

In sum, professors in this study perceive they have developed and enacted small, frequent quizzes and assignments that has led to an increase of student success compared to previous semesters. More specifically, they said these student success strategies ensured students completed their homework, regularly attend classes, and allowed professors to identify problems impacting student learning. Therefore, professors have possibly learned to deeply engage and retain a group of college students, who are often marginalized by traditional college teaching.

Student Success Strategies & Question Types: Mostly Recall, Some Analysis.

Professors in this study used small, frequent quizzes and assignments to ensure students completed their homework and attended classes ready to discuss the content. To understand whether or not these strategies substantially advanced student learning, I examined the assignment and quiz questions in relation to professors' critical teaching goals and the questions' complexity. I was interested in understanding how the questions may influence students' order of thinking; therefore, I relied on Bloom's Taxonomy of Questions to understand the possible cognitive depth of students' engagement with their homework (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). I also coded whether the questions centered on current systemic issues, narratives from the field, or students' prior knowledge as these concepts represent some of the professors' teaching goals for the observed courses. Lastly, given the study's focus on critical teaching, I noted the frequency of questions that centered on discrimination, critical self-reflection, and other concepts related to critical teaching. I demonstrate the frequency of question types in frequency distribution tables pertaining to each professor. As shown with the tables, I found the small, frequent quizzes and assignments positioned students to primarily recall, apply, or evaluate subject-matter content. I also found many of the questions—

particularly in Dr. Taylor’s quizzes and Dr. Sanders’ journal assignment—were grounded in critical perspectives.

Dr. Taylor’s student success strategies: In-class quizzes & film worksheets. Dr. Taylor assigned mostly knowledge-based questions across her weekly, in-class quizzes and documentary worksheets. As shown in Table 5, 43 of the 48 total quiz questions (90%) were knowledge-based questions. They were recall questions, which required students to identify information in basically the same form as presented in the course materials (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001).

Table 5: Question types for Dr. Taylor’s weekly quizzes

	Knowledge	Comprehension	Evaluation
Real-world systemic issues	29	2	1
Critical Questions	18	1	1
Narratives from the field	14	1	1
Critical Questions	3	0	1
Students’ prior knowledge	0	0	0
Critical Questions	0	0	0
Total Questions	43	3	2
Total Critical Questions	21	1	2

From the 43 knowledge-based questions, almost half of them (i.e., 21) were critical questions. For instance, in the Correction quiz, Dr. Taylor included the question, “According to

the video, which socio-demographic group (lower, middle, upper class) is at the greatest disadvantage when seeking effective treatment for substance abuse? Why?” This type of questions positioned students to learn about disparities in the criminal justice system as it pertains to social class and the mentally ill population. Dr. Taylor only included a few other types of questions that would elicit high order of thinking from students such as analysis and synthesis questions (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). Dr. Taylor also did not include questions that required students to refer to their prior knowledge or experiences.

In addition to the quizzes, Dr. Taylor also assigned questions with the multiple documentary films the students watched. Dr. Taylor said the film worksheets was a strategy “to get [students] to engage with the film and to get them to kind of listen for the things that I think are most pertinent as it relates to our course content.” Without the worksheets, Dr. Taylor said students would be “on their phone, or on their computer, or not pay attention.” Thus, this strategy is similar to the quizzes—to encourage students to complete their homework and attend class prepared to discuss the course content.

As shown in Table 6 below, Dr. Taylor included mostly knowledge-based questions in the film worksheets. From the 26 questions across five documentary worksheets, 24 (89%) questions were knowledge-based questions. Of those 24 knowledge-based questions, 11 (46%) questions were grounded in Critical perspectives. For example, the following question focused on current systemic issues portrayed in the film, *The New Asylum*, “Many of the offenders in the film are ultimately released from prison. What specific aspects of the prison system/re-entry system might increase the risk of re-incarceration (recidivism) for individuals with a mentally illness?” As seen here, this knowledge-based question allowed students to understand how aspects of the criminal justice system can contribute to the high recidivism rates that exist in the mentally ill population.

Table 6: Dr. Taylor's documentary worksheet question types

	Knowledge	Comprehension	Synthesis
Real-world systemic issues	13	1	1
Critical Questions	6	1	1
Narratives from the field	11	0	0
Critical Questions	5	0	0
Students' prior knowledge	0	0	0
Critical Questions	0	0	0
Total Questions	24	1	1
Total Critical Questions	11	1	1

Dr. Taylor also included several recall, critical questions on narratives from the field. For instance, the following question related to the lived experiences of mental health professionals shown in the documentary, *The Released*,

Several of the individuals in the film are connected to case managers and treatment teams when in the community. What are some of the skills used by case managers to engage clients effectively? What qualities or communication techniques are helpful?

With this question, Dr. Taylor positioned students to identify CCJ-related practices that can have a positive impact on this marginalized population. This strength-based perspective derives from critical knowledge (i.e., critical criminology).

Dr. Sanders' student success strategies: Journaling & quizzes. Dr. Sanders utilized a range of question types for her weekly journal assignments. Dr. Sanders' students had to complete 12 weekly journal entries and each entry consisted of multiple questions. As shown in Appendix V, there were a total of 44 questions across the 12 journal entries. Eighteen of the 44 questions (41%) positioned students to go beyond recalling information and instead engaged in evaluating, analyzing, and/or synthesizing CCJ concepts. Twelve of these 18 higher-order questions had elements of criticalness. For instance, Journal #8 entailed,

Politicians have used stories of criminals under the influence of illegal substances to fuel calls to continue or strengthen the War on Drugs. The media usually presents a particular slant on the relationship between drug use and criminal behavior. Find one online news article that address the relationship between drug use and criminal behavior. This could be an article talking about the relationship; a specific criminal act committed involving drugs, etc. How does the media portray the relationship? Do you think this portrayal is accurate? If not, why? If yes, why? Do you think this portrayal influences public support for the War on Drugs?

In this journal entry, Dr. Sanders asked students to evaluate the accuracy of the media's portrayal of drug use and the impact on criminal behavior. Dr. Sanders also hinted that this influence may lead to punitive and discriminatory drug policies, which was a repeated message in Dr. Sanders' teaching as also evident by the first assigned essay on how politicians used racist news and film to support the criminalization of marijuana (e.g., *Reefer Madness*). Thus, with the journals, Dr. Sanders may have met her teaching goal of having students "critically analyze current drug policy."

Along with including complex questions, Dr. Sanders also regularly asked students to reflect on their prior knowledge in relation to the course content. For example, in Journal #3, Dr. Sanders asked,

After watching the documentary Heroin: Cape Cod, USA, what are your thoughts on the heroin epidemic sweeping New England? Were you aware of this issue? Do you think the availability of Naloxone (Narcan) to EMS and the general public increases the use of Heroin because users now know this is an option to prevent overdose?

With this journal entry, Dr. Sanders' students potentially reflected on their preconceived ideas about drug addiction. I observed some students reference their prior knowledge during the class discussion. More specifically, Dr. Sanders regularly asked students about their past awareness of critical perspectives. For example, when Dr. Sanders' asked, "What were things you were aware of? Weren't aware of?" Bobby responded, "One thing I wrote in my journal was about the guy who doesn't like drugs, but feel like they have to take it for the physical dependency. Shows that this isn't just mind games." As shown with Bobby's response, he seemed to present a learning moment in which he now considers drug addiction as more complicated than a choice, and a possible medical condition. Another time, Dr. Sanders included the question, "Were you aware of the impact marijuana use can have on driving?" As seen with these examples, Dr. Sanders positioned her students to engage in critical self-reflection. Furthermore, Dr. Sanders' journals was a strategy that may have helped her students come to class prepared to discuss the content, while also engaging in high-order thinking with critical perspectives.

For her Drugs course, Dr. Sanders used weekly journals to encourage reading and student engagement; however, she did not have a weekly assignment for her lower-level Criminology course. She said adding weekly assignments outside of class may have made "the coursework too heavy" for lower-level students. Instead, she administered six short reading quizzes throughout the semester. I collected the three quizzes on critical criminological theories such as Marxism and Feminism. All three quizzes entailed five questions: three multiple-choice questions and two true-false questions. All five questions were knowledge-based questions, which asked students to recall information as presented in the course materials. For instance, Quiz #5 on strain theories included the multiple-choice question,

Strain theories generally make the case that people are more likely to commit crime when they are what?
a. Poor and/or lower class b. Psychologically disturbed c. Frustrated or under stress d. Pushed beyond limits

With strain theories, students can learn about the societal factors that lead to deviant and/or criminal behavior. As such, students can look beyond the justice-involved individual to understand influences of crime, which is an essential aspect of critical criminology. Dr. Sanders also used true-false questions to meet similar learning goals, “Marxism identifies the actions of the bourgeoisie (the upper-class or ruling class) as repressive and harmful to the proletariat (the lower-class or working class).” As seen in these examples, Dr. Sanders administered quizzes during the weeks that she covered critical topics. Given the dominance of knowledge-based questions, the quizzes likely elicited low-level thinking from students, while possibly ensuring students completed the readings and attended class.

Dr. Park’s student success strategy: Mini in-class labs. Along with the other professors, Dr. Park also used teaching strategies that possibly helped students successfully complete their homework. Dr. Park implemented “in-class assignments which was directly in conjunction with lab assignments” due later in the week. Dr. Park’s goal was for students to “get their foot wet” with the week’s concepts and instructions before doing the larger lab assignments on their own. Dr. Park assigned 15 weekly lab assignments; therefore, he administered 15 in-class assignments. I observed and analyzed six of the in-class assignments to understand how Dr. Park prepared his students to successfully complete their homework (i.e., lab assignments). I found five of the six in-class assignments positioned students to apply course concepts to new scenarios. For instance, to prepare the citation lab assignment, Dr. Park provided the following instruction to students,

The citations in the paragraph below contain several formatting errors. You must identify and correct those errors. Make any necessary changes to the paragraph to ensure that all the citations are correctly formatted according to the APA formatting style. The complete references for all of the sources cited in the paragraph are provided below.

As shown here, students had to apply what they had learned in class on APA formatting to a fictionalized article and reference list. Given the experiential approach, students may have

learned to identify what aspects of citation they do and do not understand with the opportunity to ask clarifying questions.

Within the application-based assignments, Dr. Park regularly incorporated aspects of students' lived experiences as college students. As described by Dr. Park, he tries to use "a topic that they would feel comfortable with. So because they could put themselves in that position." This was evident in the survey assignment in which student-groups had to develop and administer a two-question survey on students' "perceptions about campus police and/or safety" at HSU. After the students administered the survey to a different group, the students returned to their original groups to summarize the survey responses. Throughout this in-class assignment, Dr. Park walked around the classroom answering questions and providing feedback. At one point, he stopped the class to say, "Try to diversify your questions. Avoid yes and no questions." He also told a group, "Don't say, 'what's your opinion about campus safety?' That's way too broad." When another group said that they were confused, Dr. Park listed several topics, "personal safety, property, campus police," and instructed them to just pick one of those and "narrow in" to develop a question. Given the hands-on experience, relevance to students' lives, and Dr. Park's feedback, the in-class mini lab assignments could have helped adequately prepare students to complete the week's lab assignment.

Students' views on student success strategies: I read more now. In addition to professors' views and question types in the quizzes and assignments, an analysis of students' focus groups and interviews also indicates the positive impact of professors' student success strategies. Generally, students said they learned greatly in the courses I observed and appreciated their professors' level of care in regards to teaching the content. More specifically, some students mentioned their inclination to read when there was a quiz. For instance, Dr. Taylor's student, Emily, said,

For me, time is a big thing. I don't have a lot of it so I enjoy the fact that her readings are so short that I can cram them in, like, an hour before class. And I

can pass the quiz, like, you know, because it's only five questions. They're very direct, based on the readings.

Here, Emily explained her ability to read despite her limited time because of her full-time job.

This quote highlights Emily's inclination to complete the short readings in order to pass the quiz, which shows small, frequent assignments can be an appropriate strategy for working students such as Emily and many other HSU students. Dr. Sanders' student, Carlos, also described the impact of quizzes on his reading habits, "If I'm going to be quizzed on it, then obviously I'm going to read it...So it makes me actually read and then have to know the material before I come [into class]." He continued to describe the moment he realized he should read before coming to class,

The first [quiz] I took, I got like a 60 on it because I thought, I was like, "Whatever, it'll be easy, I should be able to do it." And then I got it, I took my best guesses, and I was like, "Okay, well, I can't get 60s on these every time." So since then, I just read it just one time.

As shown with these examples, students may perceive the quizzes as "easy," but they seemed to require students to read in order to earn a passing grade. At the very least, students potentially remembered the content as presented in the course materials, which professors then expanded on during class time. Dr. Taylor's student, Amelia, said the 13 quizzes helped spread out the coursework throughout the semester; therefore, "it doesn't seem like a lot of work at the time...I don't feel stress." In this sense, Dr. Taylor's small, weekly quizzes allowed her students to cover a significant amount of content without the emotional and practical damage of large assignments and exams (Parsons, 2008)

Dr. Sanders' students, Aubrey and Sarah, talked about the positive aspects of another student success strategy, the journal assignments. Aubrey said, the journals helped her with the exams because "[Dr. Sanders] framed the journals around the big questions she's going to ask [in the exams]." In this sense, Dr. Sanders' alignment between the journals and exam questions may have been an important factor in making the journals useful in preparing students for the larger assignments and exams. Sarah said she found herself reading the course book and

“stumbling upon new information” as she completed the journal assignments. Sarah described it as a “wild goose chase” that “helped a lot” in understanding criminal justice. The “wild goose chase” was likely because the journal questions asked students to refer to sources other than the course books.

Sarah also viewed the journals as an opportunity to express herself and learn from other people’s views. She said, “I like telling people my opinion” and described journaling as “an outlet for your own thoughts” that can allow the professor “to challenge me” and “make me think about things differently.” Thus, the journals may have given Dr. Sanders opportunities to engage with students and possibly challenge and/or validate their ideas about CCJ.

Dr. Park’s student success strategy was to include weekly in-class assignments that resembled the larger at-home, lab assignments. Dr. Park said the strategy helped students “get their foot wet” with the concepts and instructions of the lab assignments before doing them on their own. From the six in-class assignments I collected and analyzed, three of them were in-class, group assignments. Dr. Park’s student, Amy, mentioned the in-class group assignments were not helpful. She specifically said,

They're very similar to the labs but, I must say, I didn't get too much out of them because I did not like my partner. It's not that she couldn't understand the work, she just didn't pay attention, and so she was always turning either to me to answer his questions which I would explain. I don't know why she didn't understand.

Here, Amy acknowledged the similarities between the in-class and lab assignments, but also described how she regularly explained the course content to her group partner. She said another group partner “wanted to see my work every time,” which she considered cheating and stopped meeting with her. Therefore, Amy likely did not benefit from group work. Despite Amy’s problems with her partners, she said she benefitted from Dr. Park’s lessons on the days of the in-class assignments because the overall lesson aligned with lab assignments. She said,

When you come in on Tuesday, if you have your [lab] assignment done or not, I try to have it done, he goes over whatever the lesson is and whatever we were doing before correlates to that. So it's kind of like we're learning by ourselves with

the book, and then he's kind of going over and reinforcing it....And then, if I was wrong or not, whatever, but you come into class and you kind of get a refresher and sometimes you don't even know you don't understand it until he kind of goes over and it's like, "Oh, I get it now."

As shown here, Amy would attend the day of in-class assignments with her lab assignment completed as Dr. Park made the lab assignments available a week before the due date. She explained the class time allowed her to get clarifications about the content and make changes according to what she learned in class before submitting the lab assignment. Thus, Dr. Park's lessons in conjunction with the in-class assignments seemed to support student learning—particularly for students experiencing unhelpful student groups. Also, given that Amy perceived Tuesday classes as helpful and the points attached to the in-class assignments, Dr. Park's student success strategy may have encouraged students to attend those classes. In this sense, Dr. Park's strategy heightened student engagement and attendance.

Chapter 4 Summary

This study was designed to understand how professors prepare students as critically-minded professionals. Based on professor and student interviews, class observations, and assignments, I found professors in this study taught students a realistic depiction of the field with critical perspectives that highlighted the negative impact of CCJ policies, institutions, and practices (i.e., systemic discrimination). In this journey, professors realized to meet teaching goals, they needed to implement strategies that can cultivate student success among their HSU students—many who are non-traditional, underserved college students. Due to their mindset and accessible resources, professors had the capacity to experiment with different teaching strategies to learn what works. They learned that enhancing students' engagement with the coursework (e.g., completing homework) resulted in better class discussions, attendance, and learning compared to previous semesters. In sum, the study's findings show the importance of accounting for instructional equity to productively teach a critical curriculum—particularly when teaching students from underserved communities.

Chapter 5

Discussion, Implications & Conclusion

The purpose of this qualitative multi-case study was to understand how instructors enact and refine a teaching approach that can help prepare students as critically-minded professionals. I was particularly interested in examining faculty at institutions with high enrollment of historically-marginalized students (e.g., Black, Latinx, low-income) as these students are often the most impacted by systemic discrimination. To study this area of higher education, I examined three full-time Criminology/Criminal Justice (CCJ) assistant professors through multiple interviews, class observations, course materials, and student focus groups and interviews. With an interpretive epistemic approach, I found professors in this study learned to enhance their critical teaching with instructional equity. Meaning, through “trial and error,” professors adapted their instructional practices to their students’ academic needs and disciplinary knowledge. Professors’ refined teaching practices seemed to have encouraged their students to a) actively engage with the coursework inside and outside of the classroom, and b) regularly attend class ready to discuss the course content.

Given HSU’s substantial presence of historically-marginalized students and professors’ inclusion of critical perspectives, professors in this study potentially enabled Black, Latinx, and low-income students to learn the critical course content and persist throughout the semester. In this sense, this research expands the current conceptualization of critical teaching as this study highlights how college instructors can help develop historically-marginalized students as critically-minded professionals by adjusting their teaching to non-cultural aspects of their students’ lives (e.g., work, family, academic background).

In the following sections, I discuss the four main components of the conceptual framework (i.e., faculty agency, critical curriculum, faculty learning, and instructional equity) and describe how the study’s claims expand our conceptualization of critical teaching. I then

describe the implications for research, teaching practices, and educational policies. I conclude the chapter with a statement about my experiences and thoughts conducting this study.

Discussion

College instructors are paramount for sustaining social equity through their roles as classroom teachers. They can teach the subject matter through critical perspectives, which can help students learn ideas and practices that can perpetuate or address social inequities. However, instructors who use critical concepts in their classroom can face various barriers such student resistance and/or a lack of pedagogical resources—threatening their ability to develop their students as critically-minded professionals (Bernal & Villalpando, 2002; Diggs et al., 2009; Turner & González, 2011; Zettler, Cardwell, & Craig, 2017). Without a critical presence in the classroom, students may reproduce racist, sexist and other discriminatory ideas that can manifest into real-world consequences. Therefore, I became interested in understanding how instructors who have a critical orientation to their work can thrive in the classroom, in spite of the barriers, and help develop students as critically-minded practitioners. Their success in the classroom can have three important outcomes: a) students learn to view the subject matter via a critical lens, b) students persist through their college, and c) the instructor is promoted due to their teaching effectiveness. All of these outcomes can be crucial for sustaining equity. Table 7 shows the research questions (RQs) that guided the study, which helped me understand how instructors can teach students to be critically-minded practitioners.

To answer the RQs, I studied professors' agentic perspectives and intentional actions (i.e., faculty agency) that contributed to their curriculum design, instructional practices, and teaching development. This research matters because it highlights college instructors' responsiveness to students' lives and educational needs, which can be an essential process in supporting student success (Terosky, 2005; Castillo-Montoya, 2018). Furthermore, this study expands our understanding of how an understudied, but essential organizational factor, the

student-body, can influence faculty agency in the classroom and contribute to professors' success (Campbell & O' Meara, 2014).

Table 7: Research questions

1. What are the beliefs that influence professors' critical subject-matter teaching? a. How do these beliefs shape their teaching strategies?
2. How do professors describe learning to teach in a critical way?
3. What instructional strategies do CCJ instructors describe as helping them achieve their critical teaching goals?

Faculty Agency, the Classroom, and Students

The literature on faculty agency helped me understand a key component of this study: professors' responses to their students' academic needs and disciplinary knowledge as they strive to excel as classroom teachers. There are numerous personal, social, and organizational factors that can influence professors' perspectives and actions towards meeting their teaching goals, but this study focuses on the student-body, an organizational factor (Campbell & O' Meara, 2014; O' Meara et al., 2011). As evident by the study's three claims, there are several aspects of students that can influence professors' teaching. For one, professors adjusted their teaching to students' disciplinary socialization, which professors perceived as punitive, inaccurate and/or limited (i.e., one-sided). Secondly, they also adjusted their teaching when they recognized traditional, passive teaching strategies were not appropriate for their students—many of which come from underserved backgrounds. To learn what works, they mainly relied on their trusted network of colleagues and classroom experimentation (i.e., "trial and error"). They learned small, frequent, in-class quizzes and/or assignments can enhance learning and persistence for their HSU students (i.e., instructional equity). Collectively, these claims show that instructors can adjust their curriculum and instruction to students' disciplinary socialization and academic needs to meet their critical teaching goals. As such, I posit that conceptual

frameworks centering on faculty agency may account for disciplinary socialization, teaching experimentation, and instructional equity.

Currently, there is limited research on the impact of organizational contexts on faculty agency, and even less research that centers the student-body as an organizational factor. In fact, a prominent survey used to measure faculty agency, Faculty Work Environments Survey, does not include explicit questions on students (O' Meara & Campbell, 2011). Much of the survey questions and research are based on the tenure and promotion process, work-life climate, professional development resources, person-department fit, and collegiality (O'Meara & Campbell, 2011; Terosky, O'Meara, & Campbell, 2014). However, with the addition of the student-body, researchers and practitioners can start understanding how students influence instructors' critical teaching approach. Given the resistance instructors can encounter in their classrooms, especially for historically-marginalized instructors (e.g. Black and/or woman), research on agency in relation to students is essential to understand and support instructors' critical teaching.

As a result of this study, there are several theoretical implications that can expand the conceptualization of faculty agency and critical teaching. For one, this study expands the definition of organizational factors that can influence instructors' agency with critical teaching. The current higher education research focuses on the influence of organizational factors such as colleagues, professional development, and departmental policies and expectations (Campbell & O'Meara, 2014; Sulé, 2014; Terosky, O'Meara, & Campbell, 2014). I posit the institution's student-body is an organizational factor that can influence instructors' agentic perspectives and actions about teaching. Examining instructors' responsiveness to students' needs can help us understand how students can hinder and/or support instructors' ability to meet their critical teaching goals.

In Table 8, I summarize the three major ways professors' agentic perspectives and intentional actions were influenced by their students. I also indicate the claim that corresponds

to each set of agentic perspectives and intentional actions. In the following sections, I describe how each of the three claims expand the conceptualization and significance of agency for faculty teaching historically-marginalized students from a critical standpoint.

Table 8: Influence of student-body on professors' critical teaching

Agentic perspectives	Intentional actions	Corresponding Claim
To meet critical teaching goals, professors believe they need to counter students' punitive, inaccurate and/or limited (i.e., one-sided) disciplinary socialization.	Professors implement course content that highlights harmful, discriminatory practices and narratives from people affected by such practices.	Claim #1: Professors use the experiences of justice-involved people and practitioners to (re)socialize students to have a "realistic" understanding of CCJ.
To meet critical teaching goals, professors believe they need to adjust their teaching because they perceive their students lack certain academic skills that make traditional, passive teaching strategies ineffective.	Professors work with colleagues and use a "trial and error" approach to learn effective teaching strategies.	Claim #2: Professors have knowledge, dispositions, and resources that contribute to their experimental capacity in the Classroom.
To meet critical teaching goals, professors believe they need to implement strategies that enhance homework completion and class attendance as they perceive their students' academic skills and/or other responsibilities can prevent them from engaging with the coursework.	Professors implement small, frequent, in-class quizzes and assignments to encourage homework completion and class attendance.	Claim #3: Professors increase student success when they enact instructional equity.

One way to incorporate the student-body factor into the research is through the University of Maryland Faculty Work Environment Survey. The survey has been administered multiple times since 2011 and has been a central source of information for understanding faculty agency and its relation to professional growth in higher education (O'Meara & Kuvaeva, 2015). After searching the reports, the word "students" only appeared in one survey question and the word "teaching" appeared six times (O'Meara & Kuvaeva, 2015). With a survey that includes over 50 questions, instructors' students and teaching may not be adequately represented in

studies based on the survey. Therefore, this study shed light on how to include an influential aspect of instructors' work into the research on faculty agency.

This study especially highlights instructors' critical teaching more explicitly than previous frameworks on faculty agency (Campbell & O'Meara, 2014; Sulé, 2014; Terosky, O'Meara, & Campbell, 2014). This addition is particularly important for understanding and supporting instructors teaching a high percentage of the country's Black, Latinx, and low-income students. Most historically-marginalized students attend teaching institutions, where instructors' teaching effectiveness is key to their professional success (Espinosa, Turk, Taylor, & Chessman, 2019; Hirt, 2006). Therefore, the inclusion of critical teaching can yield meaningful information on how instructors, who are responsible for educating most Black, Latinx, and low-income students, develop as effective, critically-minded teachers.

In the following subsections of this chapter, I describe how each of the study's three claims expand the conceptualization of faculty agency as it pertains to the three other concepts in the guiding framework (i.e., critical curriculum, faculty learning, and instructional equity).

Adjusting critical teaching to students' disciplinary socialization. As shown with the first claim, students' prior disciplinary socialization can influence an instructor's critical curriculum. Professors in this study used the experiences of justice-involved people and practitioners to teach a critical depiction of CCJ. They said the inclusion of critical perspectives re-socialized students with a "realistic" understanding of students' aspiring profession. As noted by Weidman, Twale, and Stein (2001), professional socialization is the process in which a person acquires the knowledge, values, and skills that helps them integrate into a particular field and/or workplace. The socialization process consists of four stages: anticipatory, formal, informal, and personal (Weidman, Twale, & Stein, 2001). The anticipatory stage is when students acquire subject-matter knowledge and skills through mass media and/or from sources prior to enrolling in higher education. In the formal stage, students acquire knowledge and skills from subject-matter experts such as their college instructors. During the informal stage, students

begin to feel less like students, and more like professionals as they acquire subject-matter knowledge from peers, older students, and professionals (Weidman et al., 2001). In the personal stage, students start to internalize their new professional identity as they also “resolve any conflict” between their previous self and new identity (Weidman et al., 2001, p. 15).

As evident by this study, the first two stages of students’ professional socialization (i.e., anticipatory and formal) seemed to play a role in professors’ critical teaching. For instance, professors were guided by students’ anticipatory stage when they acknowledged their students may have been socialized to view justice-involved people as violently dangerous to society. They also believed students were not socialized to consider the socio-political and systemic factors that lead to ineffective, or worse, harmful CCJ practices. Professors’ concerns about students’ disciplinary socialization are legitimate. For instance, people are highly socialized by how mass media (e.g., news, film, television) covers a given topic (Arendt, 2010; Potter, 2011; Elsass, Schlidkraut, & Stafford, 2014). Given that mass media has historically portrayed crime in inaccurate, punitive, and discriminatory ways, students are likely developing limited and harmful (i.e., racist, sexist) disciplinary knowledge and dispositions (Grosholz & Kubrin, 2007; Rosino & Hughley, 2017). Consequently, this limited and hate-based (i.e., racist) socialization can manifest in CCJ policies and practices (Anderson, Sample, & Cain, 2013; Baumer & Martin, 2013; Enns, 2014).

Once students enroll into college and start attending classes, they have entered the formal stage. In this stage, college faculty can play a significant role in students’ disciplinary socialization (Weidman, Twale, & Stein, 2001). In response to students’ disciplinary socialization, professors in this study used subject-matter content that a) placed a critical lens on the criminal justice system, and b) highlighted the narratives of individuals disproportionately impacted by the system. As described in the conceptual framework, critical perspectives (e.g., CRT, Feminism, Marxism) are essential for faculty to teach about discriminatory and harmful consequences of practices in students’ field of study (Barton et al., 2010; Bornstein et al., 2017;

Freire, 1970). Thus, professors' course content in this study aligned with my conceptualization of critical teaching. While race, gender, and class were not highly present in the courses, the professors focused on marginalized populations that have been increasingly criminalized in the past 50 years (e.g., drug users, drug dealers, and people with SMIs) (Petit & Western 2004; Rosino & Hughley, 2018; Wacquant 2010). They particularly focused on how functions of the criminal justice system can exacerbate the marginalization of these groups. With this critical lens on the system, professors can enhance students' critical consciousness, which is defined as one's awareness of the social, institutional, and/or political factors contributing to people's social positions (Barton et al., 2010; Bornstein et al., 2017; Castillo-Montoya, 2019; Freire, 1970).

In addition to critical perspectives about the system, professors in this study also used narratives from the field to portray a realistic depiction of the subject matter. A narrative is a story that strings together personal experiences in a cohesive manner (Clark & Rossitier, 2008). Counter-narratives center on the experiences of historically-marginalized individuals and highlights non-dominant perspectives (Patton & Catchings, 2009). Narratives and counter-narratives can help the storyteller and the listeners make sense of their individual identities as well as the concepts embedded in the story (Clark & Rossitier, 2008; Connor, 2009; Godley & Loretto, 2013; Mott et al., 1999). For listeners, this learning happens partially because "[narratives] engage our spirit, our imagination, our heart, and this engagement is complex and holistic" (Clark & Rossitier, 2008, p. 65). When done well, narratives can evoke feelings and thoughts about one's own related experiences, which can enhance learning. Furthermore, narratives can shift the focus from the memorization of facts to an analysis of people from the field, their motivations, and the broader socio-political contexts (Mott et al., 1999; Patton & Catchings, 2009). Thus, professors in this study potentially engaged their students, as Dr. Taylor described, on a "deeply human level," which can help shift students' punitive and discriminatory socialization about drug use, mental illness, and criminal justice.

Given the findings on students' disciplinary socialization, this study expands the conceptualization of faculty agency by accounting for instructors' perceptions about students' anticipatory knowledge and its impact on their critical teaching. This re-conceptualization of faculty agency can shed light on how the student-body can constrain and/or enable faculty sense of agency. For instance, an instructor may perceive their students' disciplinary socialization as contradictory to instructors' critical teaching goals. Therefore, this instructor may not be satisfied with the amount and type of work needed to meet desired teaching goals. As a result, they leave the institution and transition to one where the student-body may have a socialization that aligns better with instructors' critical teaching goals (i.e., transitioning from a Predominantly-White institution (PWI) to an Historically-Black College or University).

The current educational research on professional socialization primarily focuses on graduate students transitioning into higher education as college faculty (Astin & McDaniel, 2006; Felder, Stevenson, & Gasman, 2014). However, this study expands our understanding of college-based socialization as the study instead focuses on a discipline that has been instrumental in preparing the workforce: criminology/criminal justice (Lynch, 2015, 2013; Michalowski, 2013). Colleges continue to play a significant role in preparing students for the professional world, and "faculty members are key agents of socialization in the college environment" (Kim & Sax, 2014, p. 783). Thus, if college administrators do not attend to the professional needs of critically-minded instructors, then college administrators risk being complicit in exacerbating further harm to historically-marginalized communities.

Learning to teach and experimental capacity. As evident by the study's second claim, professors' experimental capacity was enhanced when they gained a particular set of knowledge, dispositions, and resources. I define experimental capacity as the ability to implement new course content, instructions, or other teaching strategies. Research shows that an experiential, reflective approach to teaching can significantly improve teachers' effectiveness (Gallego, 2014; Larrivee, 2008; Nuemann, 2009; Schön, 1987; Terosky, 2005). Much of the

literature on teaching capacity focuses on institutional factors that can constrain and/or enable professors' experimental capacity. However, professors in this study did not often use these institutional factors (e.g., workshops, curriculum grants) as they can require time and resources professors do not have. This study expands on the scholarship by examining how the personal and contextual factors most accessible to faculty (e.g., their students, colleagues, and department) can enable faculty to be experimental and reflective.

This study highlights multiple factors that, if aligned properly, can encourage faculty to experiment in the classroom and develop as effective teachers. For one, professors were aware of students' academic needs. They mentioned work, children, and previous schooling as potential barriers for their HSU students. This perception of a problem seemed to lead them to recognize they need to address these barriers through their teaching. For instance, Drs. Park and Taylor took informal surveys of his students to gauge their subject-matter knowledge (e.g., show of hands) because they said students may not have learned some fundamental concepts at their community colleges, before transferring to HSU. The inclusion of informal surveys also represent another contributing factor to professors' agency with experimentation: their willingness to adjust teaching to their students' needs. Such teaching disposition places some of the burden of student success on the faculty, which can position educators to reflect on their teaching and adjust it accordingly (Bensimon, Dowd, & Whitman, 2016). I do acknowledge professors in this study may not have viewed students' prior knowledge as a catalyst to learn, but rather as a barrier. However, some educators do view students' past experiences as legitimate sources of knowledge, and integrate them into their teaching to enhance student learning (Castillo-Montoya, 2018; Paris & Alim, 2014)

Another possible contributing factor to professors' teaching experimentation is the access to trusted collegial resources. I use the word trusted because professors in this study described learning from colleagues they established long-standing relationships with, or from colleagues who had intimate knowledge about the subject matter and/or HSU students.

Professors in this study said they relied on their colleagues to learn new teaching strategies and described the collegial spaces as a safe place to reflect on their teaching. Given the lack of pedagogical training and the vulnerability of teaching, trusted collegial relationships can be crucial for faculty teaching development (Neumann, 2009; Patton & Catching, 2009; Terosky, 2005).

Along with collegial resources, professors said departmental resources also helped their teaching development. They specifically described the department's evaluative practices as supportive of trying new teaching strategies and academically challenging students. The department's supportive approach to teaching evaluations can be especially crucial for critical, non-tenured instructors (Sulé, 2014; Terosky, O'Meara, & Campbell, 2014). Departmental support can enable early-career faculty to take risks in the classroom without fearing being reprimanded for the negative outcomes of critical teaching (e.g., low student evaluations). As such, departmental resources, along with the other aforementioned factors, can give faculty agency to experiment with their teaching.

As evident by this claim, professors in this study did not describe institutional resources as helpful in their teaching development. They all described different reasons for not relying on institutional resources to learn how to teach. Dr. Sanders mentioned many HSU workshops were on the tenure process and not on teaching. She also said HSU offered workshops on community engagement, but Dr. Sanders was new to the area and said she lacked any community connections. HSU also offered curriculum grants to develop new courses. While Dr. Taylor took advantage of these opportunities, Dr. Sanders said the grants were too much of a commitment and preferred smaller professional development opportunities. Dr. Park mentioned the lack of recognition does not encourage him to attend professional development workshops—especially with the time he dedicates to current teaching, service, and research responsibilities. Dr. Taylor mentioned instructors' academic freedom as a reason HSU lacks professional development for teaching. Collectively, professors in this study shed light on why

institutional resources may have little effect on faculty teaching development. Instead, professors in this study said a “trial and error” approach, or classroom experimentation, has been an essential process for their teaching development.

Practicing instructional equity to meet critical teaching goals. Through “trial and error” and the help of colleagues, professors in this study learned they can meet their teaching goals with small, frequent, in-class quizzes and/or assignments. More specifically, these student success strategies enabled students to actively engage with coursework outside of class (i.e., homework) and to regularly attend class ready to discuss the course content. In this sense, the student-body at HSU positioned professors in this study to practice instructional equity, which consequently, enhanced their critical teaching. This finding expands our understanding of faculty agency as the study highlights specific agentic perspectives and instructional practices that can help instructors meet critical teaching goals. There are three concepts that potentially helped professors in this study meet their teaching goals: a) faculty viewing student success as their responsibility; b) believing culturally-relevant content is not enough to support student success; and c) engaging students in high-order thinking.

Instructional equity places some of the onus of student success on college faculty. Professors in this study implemented instructional strategies to encourage homework completion and class attendance. Research shows that such strategies can help instructors achieve these goals (Barkley, 2015; Braun & Sellers, 2012; Pennebaker, Gosling, & Ferrell, 2013). Traditionally, college instructors have primarily focused on teaching the course content, while student affairs practitioners focused on providing academic and non-academic support services (e.g., tutoring, counseling) to enhance student learning and persistence (Kinzie & Kuh, 2017; Kuh et al., 2007). However, the faculty’s role in student success is particularly important at institutions such as HSU because there are limited opportunities for these students to utilize success-inducing relationships and resources outside of the classroom (e.g., tutoring, counseling, student clubs) (Braxton & Hirschy, 2005; Dee & Daly, 2009). For instance, most of

HSU's students are over the age of 22, and a significant portion of them are part-time students—possibly indicating that many HSU students work as well as attend school. Institutions like these also have high rates of commuters and parent-students. Furthermore, many students at these types of institutions (i.e., public, comprehensive, regional) come from historically-marginalized communities with limited college-related resources. The data on HSU's student demographics points to a larger trend in higher education: a diverse population is enrolling into colleges historically designed for White, middle-upper-class, high school students who enroll as full-time students (Cabrera, Franklin, & Watson, 2017; Higher Learning Advocates, 2019). As shown with this study, some professors do recognize they are students' primary source of disciplinary knowledge and the college experience (Schreiner, Noel, & Cantwell, 2011). Thus, they adjusted their teaching practices to account for the specific needs of their students.

Instructional equity also expands our understanding of the relationship between student success and critical teaching approaches (e.g., Critical Pedagogy, Culturally-Sustaining Pedagogy). The current literature on critical teaching largely focuses on supporting student success through a curriculum that is culturally-relevant to the students (Forbes & Kaufman, 2008; Ladson-Billings, 1995, 2009; Paris & Alim, 2017). A curriculum based on the socio-political history and cultural beliefs and practices representative of the students in the classroom. With a culturally-relevant curriculum, faculty can enhance students' sense of belonging and engagement; thus, support student success (Castillo-Montoya, 2018; Paris & Alim, 2017; Rendón, 2002). However, this study suggests that a culturally-relevant curriculum may not be enough for student success—especially at an institution like HSU where many students can face a multitude of barriers (e.g., social, financial, educational). For example, an instructor at a Hispanic-Serving Institution (HSI) can use books by Dominican-American author Junot Díaz or Julia Alvarez to encourage student engagement and sustain their cultural knowledge. However, if the instructor uses passive learning strategies and/or large, high-stakes

assignments, then students may disengage as such strategies are not appropriate for the academic needs of this student population. Instead, professors in this study also adjusted their teaching to non-cultural aspects of students' lives such as work schedules to better ensure students can learn and persist. The small, frequent quizzes and assignments throughout the semester enabled students to learn the course content in increments that fit in with students' other responsibilities. Given that historically-marginalized college students are likely to have other responsibilities such as work and/or children, critical teaching of this population should not only be responsive to students' cultural and socio-political contexts, but also to students' daily personal and professional lives.

Lastly, my conceptualization of instructional equity highlights the importance of faculty engaging students in high-order thinking while teaching critical perspectives. In turn, students can learn the subject-matter knowledge and develop the cognitive skills necessary to combat the harmful, discriminatory practices that permeate their communities (Tabrizi & Rideout, 2017). Bloom's Taxonomy of Questions (BTQ) can be an appropriate tool to understand how instructors can enhance their critical teaching because both BTQ and critical teaching have similar goals (Tabrizi & Rideout, 2017). For example, they both can enable faculty to position students to actively engage in collaborative, cooperative, and problem-based learning (Forbes & Kaufman, 2008).

Professors in this study mostly used knowledge-based questions in their student success strategies, which asked students to recall information as presented in the course material. With surface-level teaching, professors in this study may not have fully actualized all their critical teaching goals—particularly the objectives related to analytical and practical thinking. They may have been inclined to simply increase students' awareness of systemic discrimination and marginalized populations because analytical and practical questions require more time and planning than knowledge acquisition (Forbes & Kaufman, 2008; Tabrizi & Rideout, 2017). Further, the limited presence of critical perspectives in mainstream media and

higher education may have caused instructors to focus on fundamental knowledge. Regardless of the rationale, college instructors practicing instructional equity want to make sure their marginalized students develop as critically-minded practitioners and community members. They can achieve this goal by ensuring their student success strategies position students to engage deeply with the course content.

In sum, the study's claims show that faculty agency can be influenced by the institution's student-body. Professors in this study adjusted their teaching practices according to students' disciplinary socialization and academic needs. They specifically used critical perspectives to address students' punitive, discriminatory, and/or limited (i.e., one-sided, pro-system) understanding of the discipline. They also regularly engaged in classroom experimentation to learn what teaching strategies work for their particular students. Lastly, all three professors practiced instructional equity to meet their critical teaching goals. In this sense, this research expands the practice and scholarship of faculty agency as it sheds light on how instructors can respond to their students in ways that enable students to develop as critically-minded professionals. In the following sections, I describe the implications for research, college teaching, and institutional practices and policies.

Implications for Future Research

There are several paths researchers can take to further understand faculty agency and critical teaching. For one, researchers can study the outcomes of faculty agency regarding critical teaching. There can be individual, organizational, and/or societal outcomes (Campbell & O'Meara, 2014). While this study highlights some individual outcomes such as professors' perceived teaching productivity, I did not explicitly focus on environmental outcomes (i.e., organization, society, discipline). Environmental outcomes are important to study because an instructor's ability to shift organizational and/or societal norms can result in their retention, satisfaction, and productivity (Campbell & O'Meara, 2014). Therefore, future research on faculty

agency can focus on how instructors' beliefs, perspectives, and actions shape their institution, department, or other areas of their professional community.

Another path for future research relates to student success strategies similar to the ones presented in this study. Professors used small, frequent quizzes and assignments to ensure students completed their homework. As seen with the findings, most of the questions were knowledge-based questions, which can restrict students to low-level thinking while completing these quizzes and assignments. Professors used these quizzes and assignments to increase students' exposure to the course content and to encourage productive class discussions. Therefore, additional research on class discussions can shed light on how, if at all, instructors can build off knowledge-based questions to have analytical and/or practical class discussions about the course content. In this sense, future researchers can identify and examine the presence of higher-order thinking to understand how, if at all, critical teaching can enhance students' cognitive development.

Lastly, professors in this study also used the quizzes and assignments to encourage students to regularly attend class. This class-to-class persistence can support students' interactions with faculty and peers, which can have a positive effect on student retention (Kinzie & Kuh, 2017; Kuh et al., 2007). During class, I observed professors share information on the academic and non-academic aspects of higher education (e.g., advising, course registration deadlines) that can also potentially support student retention. As such, future research can center on the actions instructors use to increase students' knowledge about the subject matter and higher education, more broadly. This research matters because the faculty is most students' only consistent, in-person point of contact on a college campus. This is particularly true for the faculty represented in this study.

Implications for Teaching Practices

This study lends itself to numerous implications for teaching practices. I specifically present three teaching implications, one for each of the three claims. The first claim points to

faculty creating a critical curriculum in response to students' prior disciplinary socialization. Therefore, an implication for teaching can be college instructors explicitly studying mainstream, popular depiction of the subject matter to understand students' possible discriminatory (e.g., racist, sexist, homophobic) and/or limited disciplinary socialization. For instance, as it relates to CCJ, an instructor can become aware that many of the reality and fictional television shows center on CCJ practitioners (e.g., police officers, correctional officers). These limited perspectives can reinforce one-sided narratives about the criminal justice system that ignores systemic flaws and misconduct as well as the experiences of victims and justice-involved individuals. With awareness of the popular discourse, college instructors can then integrate course content to counter students' limited—potentially harmful—socialization about the discipline.

The second claim relates to faculty learning to teach through classroom experimentation. As shown with the findings on faculty learning, there are several factors, that when aligned, can give instructors the capacity to be experimental with their teaching. This experimentation can be an essential process for teaching development. Thus, another implication for teaching is college instructors can exert perspectives and intentional actions that can enable them to try new teaching practices, reflect on their effectiveness and adjust their teaching accordingly so they can meet their goals. First and foremost, college instructors can have the willingness to take a “trial and error” approach to determine what teaching practices can lead to student success. Secondly, college instructors can increase their knowledge about their students' academic backgrounds so they can have a better sense of students' academic needs. Additionally, college instructors can engage with a network of colleagues that they trust would provide adequate feedback about their teaching. Lastly, college instructors can discuss their teaching development with departmental administrators to understand the expectations of evaluations and their impact on promotion. The clarity on expectations can enhance instructors' sense of agency (Campbell & O'Meara, 2014).

The third claim is on faculty enacting instructional equity—teaching strategies that can support success among historically-marginalized students. As shown with this research, college faculty can enact instructional equity by implementing small, frequent, in-class quizzes and assignments that encourage active engagement with the coursework. These student success strategies can position students to regularly complete their homework and attend class ready to discuss the course content. Additionally, college instructors can use Bloom’s Taxonomy of Questions as a self-assessment tool to ensure the questions within the quizzes and assignments position students to engage with the subject matter in analytical, practical, and creative ways. In this sense, instructional equity not only entails historically-marginalized students learning the subject matter, but doing so in a manner that can further develop students’ higher-order cognitive skills.

Implications for Institutional Practices

In addition to implications for teaching practices, this study also highlights implications for institutional practices and/or policies. College administrators who implement the following practices can expect to produce critically-reflexive instructors (Paris & Alim, 2014). These are instructors who reflect on their teaching practices and its impact on student learning, and then make adjustments to their teaching to better ensure they can meet critical teaching goals. As seen with the professors from this study, there may be instructors who already practice critical reflexivity. Therefore, the following implications can help administrators sustain instructors’ critical teaching approaches. This differs from current institutional practices as traditional faculty development tends to focus on instructors acquiring new knowledge about the subject matter and teaching, but not on how instructors can continuously develop as critical classroom teachers. More specifically, I list several implications that can support this sort of teaching development. For one, college administrators can allocate resources (e.g., funds, support) for instructors interested in making incremental changes in their courses. HSU provided curriculum grants for instructors to redesign an entire course. However, as noted by the faculty in this

study, the application for the grants and the eventual redesign of the course can be time-consuming—especially for junior faculty with limited teaching experience. Smaller, lower-stake grants can motivate faculty to identify areas of improvement that are not cumbersome, but can positively impact their teaching development.

College administrators can also implement practices that can sustain instructors' awareness of the institution's student-body. As shown with this study, such awareness of the student-body can help instructors recognize traditional college teaching may not work at institutions where many of its students face barriers to student success such as coming from underserved school districts, holding full-time jobs, and/or parenting children. Professors in this study repeatedly referred to their students' academic background (e.g., community college) and/or unique circumstances (e.g., full-time work) when describing their rationales for teaching strategies. Therefore, college administrators can support teaching development with practices that increase and sustain instructors' knowledge about the students in their classrooms. One way to do this is through faculty orientation and professional development. Administrators can incorporate a profile of the institution's student-body into all their orientation and professional development practices. This profile can include information on students' demographics, academic background, strengths, needs, and career aspirations. Instructors regularly engaging with the student-body profile can help ensure that they are responsive to their students' academic and non-academic lives as they refine their teaching.

Another institutional implication that can support teaching development relates to departmental practices. Departmental administrators can a) set clear expectations about teaching evaluations, and b) implement annual peer evaluations on multiple courses. These implications can help college instructors receive the support they need to push their students academically. Professors in this study said they felt supported in their department's evaluation process. They specifically mentioned members of the tenure and promotion committee were understandable about the potential for negative student evaluations-especially when

implementing academically-rigorous strategies (e.g., writing) or highly-sensitive topics (e.g., racism). Additionally, the professors said peer evaluations were also helpful as it gave professors multiple opportunities to showcase their teaching in different courses. As a result, they received feedback across different teaching contexts, which can help faculty broaden their teaching knowledge and effectiveness. Furthermore, the annual peer evaluations allowed faculty to showcase their improvements in response to previous feedback. Departmental practices supporting teaching development are especially necessary at teaching institutions, where student and peer evaluations are central components of the tenure process.

Implications for Policy

The study's findings reflect at least two implications for policy. The first one relates to accountability policies regarding faculty agency. In an effort to improve higher education, regional accrediting agencies have shifted to outcome-based accreditation, which asked institutional leaders to define and measure student and organizational outcomes (Flores, 2018; Pallas, Neumann, & Campbell, 2004). This shift appeared to motivate institutional leaders to focus on student engagement and learning (Pallas, Neumann, & Campbell, 2004). Accreditors can also amend faculty-based standards to improve higher education. Currently, some of the largest regional accrediting agencies primarily focus on the expertise and the size of the faculty to measure an institution's quality of education (New England Commission of Higher Education, 2020; Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, Commission on Colleges, 2020). Instead, regional accreditors can also focus on faculty agency. A strong sense of agency among the faculty can be indicative of a supportive and resourceful work environment—making faculty agency a reasonable accountability measure for promoting effective teaching. More specifically, implications for accreditation policy can be inclusive of faculty retention, satisfaction, instructional equity, experimental capacity, and other agency-based indicators that can lead to improvements in higher education and in the country's workforce, more broadly.

In addition to accrediting agencies, academic and professional associations can also contribute to the improvement of critical teaching in higher education. Academic associations such as the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (ACJS) established curriculum standards for CCJ programs (ACJS, 2018; Southerland et. al., 2007). As such, an implication for academic and professional associations is to set standards for subject-matter content that can help students develop as critically-minded professionals. For instance, in regards to CCJ, the ACJS' Certification Standards for Academic Programs states CCJ programs must "include a systematic examination of the issues of diversity in criminal justice/criminology through either specific required courses and/or the integration of these issues within the program's curriculum" (ACJS, 2018, p. 4). These standards are designed to ensure academic programs cover disciplinary content essential for the field. Other academic and professional associations can set similar disciplinary standards.

Conclusion

I feel like we have this fundamental portrayal of our criminal justice system as being fair and equal to everyone and we know that that's just not the case. And so I think that until we take an honest look at how our criminal justice system functions, and how it functions for everybody, not just for certain portions of the population, I think that we're going to continue to move towards social injustice. - Dr. Taylor

The above quote by Dr. Taylor captures the essence of my research: college faculty helping transform students into critically-minded practitioners of their respective disciplines. My focus on understanding and addressing social inequities through criminal justice has been fundamental to my work since enrolling as a criminal justice student at Lasell College and later at the University of Massachusetts - Lowell. As an undergraduate and graduate criminal justice student, much of my research projects centered on systemic discrimination permeating through law enforcement. Later as a police officer and social worker, I took pride in being honest and transparent with the people I served. This transparency was my way of balancing the power dynamic between me, a representative of the system, and them, the underserved community.

As a result of my transparency, I witnessed people take control of their difficult situations instead of letting me dictate what should happen next. Soon after, I became interested in making a bigger impact on the field by teaching other professionals to be responsive to community members and see them as equal. This revelation led me to my doctoral studies.

When I first began my doctoral journey, I was immersed in the literature and practice of faculty development. I was intrigued by the opportunity to study how college faculty learn to be responsive to their students, while teaching a critical depiction of their discipline. Coupled with my criminal justice experience, I decided to study CCJ professors. From my research, I learned to see higher education not just as a context where social injustices are reinforced within the boundaries of college campuses, but also as a place where social injustices are perpetuated through different fields of study and onto the real world. I learned that some college instructors recognize the role higher education plays in reproducing discriminatory and harmful practices and attempt to address it through their critical teaching approach. In doing so, I learned college instructors can shape into “conscientious” educators who see their students as capable learners as long as they, the instructor, adjust to their students’ needs. In this sense, college faculty can help develop critically-minded professionals with critical content coupled with instructional strategies that enable learning and persistence among students most affected by social inequities.

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Appendices

Appendix A Data Collection Timeline

Task	Time
Recruitment email and meeting	August 2018
Collected CVs & syllabi	August 2018
Conducted faculty interview 1 of 2	September 2018
Class observations & collection of course materials	August - December 2018
Student focus groups	November 2018
Conducted faculty interview 2 of 2	December 2018

Appendix B
Letter of support from CCSU Gatekeeper

May 14, 2018

Dear CCSU Human Studies Council:

Joshua Abreu is a doctoral student at the University of Connecticut (UConn). He has proposed to conduct his doctoral dissertation on the teaching and learning of Criminology/Criminal Justice professors and students during Fall 2018 at Central Connecticut State University (CCSU). I understand that the study involves the collection of data from two interviews per participating professors, multiple class observations, course material (e.g., exams, assignments), and conduct student focus groups. I also understand that all information collected from individuals will be done with duly informed consent from the participating individuals and that organizational members can refuse participation with no negative consequences for said individual. I support the conduct of this research in this organization.

Sincerely,

Steven Block
Assistant Professor/Undergraduate Program Director
Central Connecticut State University
Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice

Appendix C
Recruitment Email (for professors)

Dear (faculty name),

My name is Joshua Abreu and I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Connecticut (UConn) studying leadership and educational policy. My research interest is on the teaching and learning of college professors—with a particular focus on criminology/criminal justice education. Given your position as a professor, I would like to invite you to participate in my study. The research will be on the experiences of criminology and criminal justice professors inside the classroom and how they have developed as teachers. Through your participation, we may further understand professors' experiences teaching and learning and have a better sense of how to support the teaching development of faculty.

This will be a multiple-case study designed to capture an in-depth view of professors' experiences through two in-person interviews, classroom observations, and a student focus groups. I will also collect professors' CVs, syllabi, and course material. Given the depth of the study, your participation may involve a semester-long commitment, which may contribute significantly to the scholarship on criminology/criminal justice education and higher education, more broadly.

Please know that your participation in this study is voluntary and if you choose to participate, you can withdraw at any time. If you wish to participate, please respond to this email expressing your interest. I will reply with an email to schedule the first interview at location convenient to you. Attached to this email is a copy of the informed consent form for your records. I appreciate your time and hope you will consider participating in this study.

Thank you,

Joshua Abreu

Appendix D
Scheduling the professor interview 1 of 2 only

Dear (faculty name),

Thank you for volunteering to participate in this study. I'd like to schedule our first interview to discuss your experiences learning and teaching criminal justice. Please complete this doodle poll to indicate your availability for the interview: _____

In addition to scheduling the interview, I would like to collect your CV and the syllabus for your [course determined most relevant to study]. I will contact you again at least one week in advance to confirm day, time and location of interview. Please plan to arrive 10 minutes early to ensure I have time to address any questions you may have about the study before the interview begins.

Please note that the second interview will be scheduled after we complete the first one.

Again, thank you for your time.

Joshua Abreu

Appendix E
Consent Form (for professors)

Consent Form for Participation in Research Study

Study Title: Transformative Pedagogy in Higher Education:
A Multi-Case Study of Criminology and Criminal Justice (CCJ) Professors

Principal Investigator: Joshua Abreu – Doctoral Candidate, UCONN
Phone: (978) 809-2456
Email: Joshua.abreu@uconn.edu

Faculty Supervisor/Advisor: Dr. Milagros Castillo-Montoya, Assistant Professor, UCONN
Phone: (860) 486-3250
Email: milagros.castillo-montoya@uconn.edu

Introduction

You are invited to participate in research study about criminology and criminal justice professors teaching at four-year public universities. More specifically, this is a study on understanding how professors' beliefs and actions can enable them to learn about, enact, and prioritize their teaching. I also want to better understand how professors view their capacity to teach and how might universities and academic disciplines better support professors' teaching development. Please note you have to be 18 years old or older to participate in this study.

Why is this study being done?

We know little about how criminology and criminal justice educators teach the subject matter and develop their teaching skills. This study is being done to better understand how professors learn about, enact, and prioritize their teaching in ways that can enhance student learning and support professors' career development. Also, the study is being done to gain a better understanding of what may support or hinder professors' teaching development.

What are the study procedures? What will I be asked to do?

Participate in two interviews

Each participating professor is expected to complete two interviews: one interview early on in the fall semester, and a second interview at the end of or soon after the fall semester. These interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed unless the participant prefers researcher to only take notes, in which case only notes will be taken during the interview. Each interview will take approximately one hour to complete.

Provide documents

I will ask each participant to submit their respective CV, course syllabus, and course assignments and readings for data collection purposes, as well as any classroom-related documents (including lesson plan if applicable).

Provide access to classroom and students

In addition to these documents, I ask each participating professor to permit me to attend and observe approximately 10 class sessions of the same course throughout the semester. Prior to conducting the first classroom observation, I will ask for class time to explain the study to the students and gain their consent for the observations. During this time, I will explain the purpose and details of this study and provide students with a consent form containing information

regarding the classroom observations. I will also explain the student focus group and handout an information sheet about the focus group with a section for students to fill in their contact information if they are interested in participating in a student focus group.

Students may be absent or add the course before the add/drop deadline; therefore, they may not be present during my initial class presentation of the study. As such, at the beginning of the semester and after the add/drop deadline, I will ask you for the number of students enrolled in the course I will observe. I will then compare this number with the number of signed consent forms returned from students. I will ask for additional class time to present my study until the number of enrolled students matches or nearly matches the number of students' signed and returned consent forms. This will give me an idea the extent in which all students enrolled in the course had an opportunity to learn about my presence in the classroom and possibly consent to the class observations and/or student focus group if they choose.

The purpose of the student focus groups will be to learn more about students' experiences in the observed course and include questions about the professors' teaching. During this explanation of the study—you will be asked to step out of the room to avoid being informed about which students are participating in this portion of the study and to also minimize any pressure students may feel to participate. I will, at no point in this study, inform you about which students participated in any aspect of this research.

During the 10 class sessions when I am present, I will take observational notes regarding what the professor and students are saying and doing. During these observations, I will also audio record the classroom sessions. To ensure I keep track of students' comments, I ask all participating professors to take attendance at the start of the class. Specifically, I ask professors to ask their students to respond as the professors call out students' names. This way, I know the students' names, where they are sitting, and whether or not they provided consent to be observed. As such, I can identify consenting and non-consenting students regardless if they move seats and/or appearances throughout the semester.

Engage in informal conversations

I may engage participating professor in informal conversations in order to gain clarification on topics or issues that may come up during class observations. These conversations may occur before or after class time and can be useful to gather information that may be relevant to the study. Participating professors should expect informal conversations may be used as data to further understand their teaching.

What are the risks or inconveniences of the study?

Conversations that occur in the interviews may be similar to those that you have when speaking to others about your teaching. There may be times when you will be asked to reflect on your own identities, thoughts about social justice, and how they inform your teaching. This may mean there may be times when you feel more vulnerable than you ordinarily would discussing your teaching. Also, the student focus groups will focus on their professors' teaching; therefore, participating professors may feel vulnerable to try new teaching strategies or strategies they do not completely feel comfortable enacting knowing their students will be asked for their perspectives on the course and professor's teaching. The researcher is mindful to create a supportive environment where participants can engage in such conversations. In addition, you will be observed in your teaching, which means some discomfort may arise from being observed in the act of teaching. Prior to visiting your class, I will be sure to check in to ensure the planned observation still works for you.

Another possible inconvenience of this study is the semester-long involvement with the researcher through interviews and class observations. Also, I may ask you to identify other professors who meet study criteria and ask them to contact me if they wish to participate in the study.

What are the benefits of the study?

The study may benefit you directly by providing you with opportunities to deeply reflect about your teaching and overall career. This may help you further improve your teaching and support your career trajectory. This study will also benefit the field of higher education by creating an opportunity to advance what we know about the beliefs and actions that enable professors to teach criminal justice or other disciplines.

Will I receive payment for participation? Are there costs to participate?

You will not receive payment for your participation and there will be no cost to you.

How will my personal information be protected?

I will only use your name during data collection as way to maintain consistency on how your students and/or peers refer to you. I will then change your name with a pseudonym (a made up name that will be used to protect your real identity) in all the places where your real name is present such as my field notes and interview transcripts. I will keep all study records (including any codes) locked in a secure location. A master key that links names and codes will be maintained in a separate and secure location. The master key and audiotapes will be destroyed after 5 years. Other study records (e.g. completed surveys with identifiable information removed) will be kept indefinitely. All electronic files (e.g., database, spreadsheet, etc.) containing identifiable information will be password protected. Any computer hosting such files will also have password protection to prevent access by unauthorized users. I will be the only person with access to the passwords. Any documents saved on shared online files will require log in and password. Data that will be shared with others will be coded as described above to help protect your identity.

At the conclusion of this study, I may publish or present the findings. Information will be presented in summary format and you will not be identified by your real name in any publications or presentations. I will do my best to protect the confidentiality of the information I gather from you but I cannot guarantee 100% confidentiality. Your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. It is possible that all recordings will be transcribed by a third party that ensure confidentiality.

You should also know that the UConn Institutional Review Board (IRB) and Research Compliance Services may inspect study records as part of its auditing program, but these reviews will only focus on the researchers and not on your responses or involvement. The IRB is a group of people who review research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research participants.

Can I stop being in the study and what are my rights?

You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate. Also, you do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer.

Whom do I contact if I have questions about the study?

Take as long as you like before you make a decision. I will be happy to answer any question you have about this study. If you have further questions about this project or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact me, Joshua Abreu by email at Joshua.abreu@uconn.edu or by phone at (978) 809-2456.

This research project has been reviewed and approved by the CCSU Human Studies Council as well as by UCONN's Institutional Review Board (IRB). If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or if you have a research related complaint please contact Dr. Laura Bowman, Co-Chair, CCSU Human Studies Council at (860) 832-3118, e-mail Bowman@ccsu.edu, or Dr. James Conway, Co-Chair, CCSU Human Studies Council at (860) 832-3107. email ConwayJ@ccsu.edu. Or you may contact the HSC Administrator, CCSU Human Studies Council at hsc@ccsu.edu. You can also contact UCONN's IRB at 860-486-8802.

Documentation of Consent:

I have read this form regarding the presented study. Its general purposes, the particulars of involvement and possible risks and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. I understand that I can withdraw at any time. My signature indicates my consent to participate in this study and also indicates that I have received a copy of this consent form.

_____ Participant Signature:	_____ Print Name:	_____ Date:
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_____ Signature of Person Obtaining Consent	_____ Print Name:	_____ Date:
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Appendix F
Sample of Codebook

Code	Definition
Professors' Beliefs	
Thoughts about teaching	Professor's ideas and feelings about teaching
Impactful people in professor's life	People that professor believes had a significant influence on their education.
Moment of critical reflection	A time when professor thought about systems of privilege and oppression.
Pivotal time in professor's life	A moment in professor's life that drastically changed their life path.
A sense of responsibility	Professor shares something that they feel responsible to uphold, enact, or change.
Perceived obligation (child codes: about student learning, about social justice)	Beliefs about what they need to do as part of their job.
Belief about social identities and equity	Professor's thoughts on the relationship between social identities (race, gender, class, etc.) and social justice.
Professors Learning	
Network of colleagues	Group of individuals who help support professor's career tasks (i.e. writing, research, teaching, employment, etc.)
Learning about pedagogy location	Places that professor goes to learn about teaching and learning.
Learning about pedagogy strategy	Actions to learn about teaching and learning.

Learning subject matter content (child codes: location and strategy)	The places professors go and the things they do to learn about criminal justice, criminology, and other related disciplines.
Professor's reflective practice	Professor mention strategies they use to process the effect of their teaching, research
Professor enacting teaching strategies	
Presence of real-world systemic issues	The coursework includes problems that is currently impacting the criminal justice system.
Use of students' prior knowledge	Professor and/or students refer to students' experiences to make sense of criminal justice concepts or issues.
Student's thoughts about their learning	Students' ideas and feelings about how the class influenced their learning about themselves and criminal justice.
Addressing classroom barriers	Professor's strategies to navigate around the barrier and continue to teach the way they want.
Presence critical theories	Coursework includes critical theories (i.e. CRT, Feminism, Marxism, etc.)
Teaching strategy	The techniques and ways professor facilitate student learning.

Appendix G
Interview Protocol 1 of 2

General	RQ
<p><i>Thank you again for being willing to participate in this interview. You have previously consented to allowing me to record our interviews. Is it ok with you if I record this interview as well? (wait for answer). I would like to start by asking you some general questions about being a professor. First question is...</i></p> <p>How long have you been a professor? What was your motivation to become a professor?</p>	1-3
<p><i>I would now like to ask you some general questions about teaching.</i></p> <p>What courses have you taught since becoming a professor? Follow-up: What course has been your favorite to teach? What is about [course they name] that makes it your favorite?</p>	1-3
<p>Who was/is someone, either a former teacher or colleague, that you admire as a good teacher? Follow-up: From your perspective, what made them a good teacher?</p>	1-3
Beliefs on professional agency	
<p><i>I would now like to ask you questions about the field of criminology/criminal justice.</i></p> <p>What do you think is most important for your students to learn about in your course? Follow-up: What do you think the students can gain when you teach about [answer to previous question] you've just mentioned? Do you include these issues in your classes? If yes: How so? How do your students react? If no, what keeps you from including these important issues in the curriculum?</p>	1, 3
<p>(If social inequality is not mentioned in previous question)</p> <p>When you think about social inequalities within your field, what comes to mind for you? Follow-up: Which social inequalities within the criminal justice system do you think are important for your students to know about? Prompt: What are the benefits for students knowing about [their answer on social inequality]? Follow up: How do you go about teaching your students about [inequality mentioned]?</p>	1, 3
<p>What are your thoughts about all criminal justice professors, regardless of course, teaching about social inequality to students? Follow up: How do you currently see teaching about social inequality play out across the faculty in your department?</p>	1, 3
Beliefs on student learning	

<p><i>I would now like to ask you about the course's learning goals. Of the learning goals you list in your syllabus, which one do you believe is most important for students to achieve?</i></p> <p>[If no learning goals in the syllabus: What learning do you believe is most important for students to achieve in (name of observed course)].</p> <p>Follow-up:</p> <p>What do you see as the benefits in students meeting this learning goal? How do you know you students have met this learning goal? What has been challenging with meeting this learning goal?</p> <p>If not mentioned: I see that you list [learning goal relevant to transformative pedagogy] as a learning goal for your course [name of course]. What do you see as the benefits in students meeting this learning goal? How do you know you students have met this learning goal? What has been challenging with meeting this learning goal?</p>	1-3
<p>In regards to the field, what skills do you believe criminal justice students should have by the time they become professionals?</p> <p>Follow-up: Which one do you believe is most important? How do you go about teaching this skill in your course?</p>	1, 3
Enacting teaching strategies	
<p><i>I would now like to ask you about some questions about your classroom teaching.</i></p> <p>What are some of the teaching strategies that you currently use in your classes to ensure your students are learning?</p> <p>Follow-up: Which one are you most confident about? What makes you feel confident about that strategy? Which strategy are you the least confident about? What makes you feel less confident about that one?</p>	2-3
<p>In general, how do your students react to your teaching?</p> <p>Follow-up: What weeks or topics do you they seem to enjoy the most? What makes you think so?</p> <p>What do they seem to enjoy the least? What makes you think so?</p>	2, 3
<p>How do go about teaching race, gender, class or other similar topics?</p> <p>Follow-up: How does it look like when this teaching goes well? What makes this teaching challenging for you? How do you address these challenges?</p> <p>If no challenge mentioned: Has it always come easy to you? Please tell me more.</p>	1-3
Learning about teaching	
<p><i>So reflecting on teaching race, gender, and/or class, can you share how you learned to teach these topics?</i></p>	2-3

<p><i>Now, I would like to ask you about how you learn about teaching in general. How do you go about developing your teaching?</i></p> <p>Follow-up: [If not mentioned] How do you reflect about your teaching? Have you found this helpful? If yes, how so?</p> <p>Follow up:</p> <p>(If not mentioned) Have you participated in any professional development on teaching?</p> <p>If they have participated: Where have you participated in these professional development opportunities? Any particular time or workshop that stands out the most? Why does that stand out the most to you? How has it impacted your teaching?</p> <p>If they have not participated: What has kept you from taking about part of professional development on teaching?</p>	2-3
<p>In regards to the discipline, how do you stay up-to-date with current and emerging criminology and criminal justice concepts?</p> <p>Follow-up: How do you decide what to add to the curriculum? Can you provide an example when this recently happened?</p>	2-3
How else do you learn about teaching criminology/criminal justice?	1-3
Prioritizing teaching	
<p>Now I want to ask some questions on how you might integrate your teaching into other areas of your career. In what ways have you connected your teaching with your other job responsibilities?</p> <p>Follow-up: If connected, How is it helpful in making the connection between teaching and [their answer to previous question]? How did you learn to make these connections? How have these connections impacted your teaching?</p> <p>If not connected, Can you tell me about the reason why you feel there is a disconnect between your teaching and your other career responsibilities? How has this disconnect impacted your teaching?</p>	2, 3
<p>[If available, choose a research article or project from their CV] I see that you have written about education (or critical perspectives). Did writing the article [name of article] inform your teaching in any way?</p> <p>If yes: How so? If no: Have any other publications or research projects have informed your teaching? Which one? How has it informed your teaching?</p>	2-3
General	
Is there anything else you want to tell me about your experience teaching criminal justice at this institution that we have not yet had an opportunity to talk about, but that you think is important for me to know to learn more about you as a teacher?	1-3
<p><i>That completes the interview. Thank you for taking the time to meet with me for our first interview. I might reach out in the next few weeks to clarifying some of things you said in this interview or I may include some of those questions in our second interview.</i></p>	

Appendix H
Data Sample

	Dr. Sanders	Dr. Taylor	Dr. Park
Interviews (dates and duration)	1st formal interview: 9/4/18 (63 mins) 2nd formal interview: 12/12/18 (89 mins)	1st formal interview: 9/6/18 (67 mins) 2nd formal interview: 12/10/18 (90 mins)	1st formal interview: 9/13/18 (58 mins) 2nd formal interview: 12/11/18 (78 mins)
CV (y/n)	Y	Y	Y
Observed course(s)	Criminology I, a 200-level required course; and Drugs and Criminal Justice, a 400-level and graduate elective course	Mental Health, a 400-level elective course.	Research Methods, a 300-level required course.
Syllabus (y/n)	Y	Y	Y
Course Materials	Criminology I: 3 quizzes; 3 exams; 1 Theory Paper; 1 extra-credit Drugs & Criminal Justice: 3 exams; 3 graduate exams; 3 reaction papers; 1 graduate research paper; 1 group paper-presentation; 12 journal prompts	Mental Health course: 11 quizzes; 3 chapter response papers; 5 documentary worksheets; 1 case study assignment; 1 final paper;	Research Methods course: 3 exams; 4 in-class assignments; 1 final paper and presentation; 2 hand-outs (scholarly articles).
Class Observations	Criminology I: 9 observed sessions (75 mins. each) Drugs & Criminal Justice: 11 observed sessions (75 mins. each)	Mental Health course: 9 observed sessions (75 mins. each)	Research Methods course: 8 observed sessions (75 mins. each)
Student Focus Groups & Interviews (names, date and duration)	Criminology I: Abby and Carlos - 11/13/18 (40 mins)	Mental Health: Emily and Amelia - 12/3/18 (31 mins.)	Research Methods: Tarah - 11/27/18 (36 mins.)

	<p>Drugs & Criminal Justice: Christina and Aubrey - 11/6/18 (35 mins.)</p> <p>Sarah - 11/28/18 (39 mins.)</p>		
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Appendix I
Classroom Observation Guide (Adapted from Castillo-Montoya, 2013)

Researcher Name: Date of Observation: Length of Observation:

Course name: Number of Students Present: Instructor Name:

Observations Prior to Class:

Class Diagram:

Observations During Class

Time	Observation of Instructor: What is the instructor saying or doing? What is the instructor teaching about?	Observation of Students: What are the students saying and doing? What questions are they asking? What ideas do they seem to be engaged with?	Self-Notes: What am I thinking about? How does this relate to study?	Study-Notes: What ideas are coming to mind about theories or my methods

Appendix J
Consent Form for class observations (for students)

Consent Form for Participation in Class Observations

Study Title: Transformative Pedagogy in Higher Education:
A Multi-Case Study of Criminology and Criminal Justice (CCJ) Professors

Principal Investigator: Joshua Abreu – Doctoral Candidate, UCONN
Phone: (978) 809-2456
Email: Joshua.abreu@uconn.edu

Faculty Supervisor/Advisor: Dr. Milagros Castillo-Montoya, Assistant Professor, UCONN
Phone: (860) 486-3250
Email: milagros.castillo-montoya@uconn.edu

Introduction

You are invited to participate in research study about criminology and criminal justice professors teaching at four-year public universities. More specifically, this is a study on understanding how professors' beliefs and actions can enable them to learn about, enact, and prioritize their teaching. I also want to better understand how professors view their capacity to teach and how might universities and academic disciplines better support professors' teaching development. Please note you have to be 18 years old or older to participate in this study.

Why is this study being done?

We know little about how criminology and criminal justice educators teach the subject matter and develop their teaching skills. This study is being done to better understand how professors learn about, enact, and prioritize their teaching in ways that can enhance student learning and support professors' career development. Also, the study is being done to gain a better understanding of what may support or hinder professors' teaching development.

What are the study procedures? What will I be asked to do?

Be observed in class

During class sessions I attend, you and your professor will be observed meaning I will take observational notes and audio record the classroom sessions. This will entail me taking notes on what you, your classmates, and professor say and do during class time. To ensure I more accurately capture students' comments, I will ask your professors to take attendance at the start of class. This way, I am able to know students' names and check who agreed to be observed before beginning my observational notes. Class attendance will also help me know which students were absent during my initial class presentation on the my study. I will ask your professors for class time to present my study until all students enrolled in the course has had an opportunity to learn about my presence in the classroom and consent to class observations and/or the student focus group if they choose. This will have no bearing on your professor's attendance policy, but rather provide an equal opportunity for all your classmates to understand and participate in this research study.

Please note, I will not inform your professor on which students decided to participate or not. If you decide not to participate, then I will not take any observational notes on you or include anything you say or do in the study. You will not be penalized in any way for not participating and students who do participate will not receive any grading benefits.

What are the risks or inconveniences of the study?

Conversations that occur in the focus group may be similar to those that you have when speaking to others about your schooling. There may be times when you will be asked to reflect on your own identities and how they inform your learning and this may mean there will be times when you feel more vulnerable than you ordinarily would discussing your education. Also, you will hear your classmates' responses to the questions and it may feel uncomfortable if those responses contradict your ideas about criminal justice or education, more generally. The researcher is mindful to create a supportive environment where all participants can engage in such conversations constructively and respectfully. In addition, you will be observed in your class. Some discomfort may arise from being observed engaging in class discussions. Lastly, if you participate in the focus group, then I may contact you afterward to clarify what was said during the focus group.

What are the benefits of the study?

The study may benefit you directly by providing you with opportunities to connect with other criminology/criminal justice students and discuss your education. This study will also benefit the field of higher education by creating an opportunity to advance what we know about the how professors can use students' thoughts and reactions to enhance student learning in criminology/criminal justice education or other disciplines.

Will I receive payment for participation? Are there costs to participate?

You will not receive payment for your participation and there will be no cost to you.

How will my personal information be protected?

I will only use your name during class observation notes as way to maintain consistency on how your professors and/or peers refer to you. I will then change your name with a pseudonym (a made up name that will be used to protect your real identity) in all the places where your real name is present such as my field notes and transcripts. I will keep all study records (including any codes and pseudonyms) locked in a secure location. A master key that links names and codes will be maintained in a separate and secure location. The master key and audiotapes will be destroyed after 5 years. Other study records (i.e. completed surveys with identifiable information removed) will be kept indefinitely. All electronic files (e.g., database, spreadsheet, etc.) containing identifiable information will be password protected. Any computer hosting such files will also have password protection to prevent access by unauthorized users. I will be the only person with access to the passwords. Any documents saved on shared online files will require log in and password. Data that will be shared with others will be coded as described above to help protect your identity.

At the conclusion of this study, I may publish or present the findings. Information will be presented in summary format and you will not be identified by your real name in any publications or presentations. I will do my best to protect the confidentiality of the information I gather from you but I cannot guarantee 100% confidentiality. Your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. It is possible that all recordings will be transcribed by a third party that ensure confidentiality.

You should also know that the UConn Institutional Review Board (IRB) and Research Compliance Services may inspect study records as part of its auditing program, but these reviews will only focus on the researchers and not on your responses or involvement. The IRB is a group of people who review research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research participants.

Can I stop being in the study and what are my rights?

You do not have to be in this focus group or study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. During class observations, I will not take notes on anyone that decides not to participate. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate. Also, you do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer.

Whom do I contact if I have questions about the study?

Take as long as you like before you make a decision. I will be happy to answer any question you have about this study. If you have further questions about this project or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact me, Joshua Abreu by email at Joshua.abreu@uconn.edu or by phone at (978) 809-2456.

This research project has been reviewed and approved by the CCSU Human Studies Council as well as by UCONN's Institutional Review Board (IRB). If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or if you have a research related complaint please contact Dr. Laura Bowman, Co-Chair, CCSU Human Studies Council at (860) 832-3118, e-mail Bowman@ccsu.edu, or Dr. James Conway, Co-Chair, CCSU Human Studies Council at (860) 832-3107. email ConwayJ@ccsu.edu. Or you may contact the HSC Administrator, CCSU Human Studies Council at hsc@ccsu.edu. You can also contact UCONN's IRB at 860-486-8802.

Documentation of Consent:

I have read this form regarding the presented study. Its general purposes, the particulars of involvement and possible risks and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. I understand that I can withdraw at any time. My signature indicates my consent to participate in this study and also indicates that I have received a copy of this consent form.

Please check the circles below to indicate if you would like to participate in this study.

- ☐ I agree to be observed during class observations
- ☐ I DO NOT agree to be observed during class observations

Participant Signature Print Name: Date: _____

Signature of Person Print Name: Date: _____
Obtaining Consent

Appendix K
Information Sheet on Student Focus Group

Information Sheet on Student Focus Group

Study Title: Transformative Pedagogy in Higher Education:
A Multi-Case Study of Criminology and Criminal Justice (CCJ) Professors

Principal Investigator: Joshua Abreu – Doctoral Candidate, UCONN
Phone: (978) 809-2456
Email: Joshua.abreu@uconn.edu

Faculty Supervisor/Advisor: Dr. Milagros Castillo-Montoya, Assistant Professor, UCONN
Phone: (860) 486-3250
Email: milagros.castillo-montoya@uconn.edu

Introduction

This information sheet is on the student focus groups that will be part of this research study. This is a study on understanding how professors' beliefs and actions can enable them to learn about, enact, and prioritize their teaching. I also want to better understand how professors view their capacity to teach and how might universities and academic disciplines better support professors' teaching development. Please note you have to be 18 years old or older to participate in this study.

Why is this study being done?

We know little about how criminology and criminal justice educators teach the subject matter and develop their teaching skills. This study is being done to better understand how professors learn about, enact, and prioritize their teaching in ways that can enhance student learning and support professors' career development. Also, the study is being done to gain a better understanding of what may support or hinder professors' teaching development.

What are the study procedures? What will I be asked to do?

Participate in a student focus group

To participate, you need to be at least 18 years old. The purpose of a focus group is to understand people's perspectives on a shared experience such as your enrollment in this criminology/criminal justice course. Please note I will not inform your professor whether or not you participate in the focus group. The focus group will consist other students from the same class and the questions will be about your experiences in your academic program and in this specific class. Everyone that participates in the focus group will have opportunities to answer questions directly from me, hear other students' responses, and/or discuss among each other. I aim to audio record and facilitate the focus group, while my colleague takes notes on our conversation. You can stop participating at any time during the focus group. The student focus group should take approximately one hour to complete.

Complete demographic questionnaire

The students who participate in the focus group will be asked to complete a demographic questionnaire. The questionnaire will have questions on age, race, gender, college credits, and other questions that may help me further understand your experiences. You will be asked to state your name throughout the focus group and on the questionnaire in order to match your focus group comments to demographic information. You may participate in the focus group and refuse to complete this questionnaire.

What are the risks or inconveniences of the study?

Conversations that occur in the focus group may be similar to those that you have when speaking to others about your schooling. There may be times when you will be asked to reflect on your own identities and how they inform your learning and this may mean there will be times when you feel more vulnerable than you ordinarily would discussing your education. Also, you will hear your classmates' responses to the questions and it may feel uncomfortable if those responses contradict your ideas about criminal justice or education, more generally. The researcher is mindful to create a supportive environment where all participants can engage in such conversations constructively and respectfully. Lastly, if you participate in the focus group, then I may contact you afterward to clarify what was said during the focus group.

What are the benefits of the study?

The study may benefit you directly by providing you with opportunities to connect with other criminology/criminal justice students and discuss your education. This study will also benefit the field of higher education by creating an opportunity to advance what we know about the how professors can use students' thoughts and reactions to enhance student learning in criminology/criminal justice education or other disciplines.

Will I receive payment for participation? Are there costs to participate?

You will not receive payment for your participation and there will be no cost to you.

How will my personal information be protected?

I will only use your name during data collection as way to maintain consistency on how your professors and/or peers refer to you. I will then change your name with a pseudonym (a made up name that will be used to protect your real identity) in all the places where your real name is present such as my field notes and focus group transcripts. I will keep all study records (including any codes and pseudonyms) locked in a secure location. A master key that links names and codes will be maintained in a separate and secure location. The master key and audiotapes will be destroyed after 5 years. Other study records (i.e. completed surveys with identifiable information removed) will be kept indefinitely. All electronic files (e.g., database, spreadsheet, etc.) containing identifiable information will be password protected. Any computer hosting such files will also have password protection to prevent access by unauthorized users. I will be the only person with access to the passwords. Any documents saved on shared online files will require log in and password. Data that will be shared with others will be coded as described above to help protect your identity.

At the conclusion of this study, I may publish or present the findings. Information will be presented in summary format and you will not be identified by your real name in any publications or presentations. I will do my best to protect the confidentiality of the information I gather from you but I cannot guarantee 100% confidentiality. Your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. It is possible that all recordings will be transcribed by a third party that ensure confidentiality. Once I have collected the data and transcribed the audio recordings of the class observations and student focus group, I will change all names into pseudonyms.

You should also know that CCSU's Human Studies Council (HSC) and UConn's Institutional Review Board (IRB) and Research Compliance Services may inspect study records as part of its auditing program, but these reviews will only focus on the researchers and not on your

responses or involvement. The HSC and IRB is a group of people who review research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research participants.

Can I stop being in the study and what are my rights?

You do not have to be in this focus group or study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. During class observations, I will not take notes on anyone that decides not to participate. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate. Also, you do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer.

Whom do I contact if I have questions about the study?

Take as long as you like before you make a decision. I will be happy to answer any question you have about this study. If you have further questions about this project or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact me, Joshua Abreu by email at Joshua.abreu@uconn.edu or by phone at (978) 809-2456.

This research project has been reviewed and approved by the CCSU Human Studies Council as well as by UCONN's Institutional Review Board (IRB). If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or if you have a research related complaint please contact Dr. Laura Bowman, Co-Chair, CCSU Human Studies Council at (860) 832-3118, e-mail Bowman@ccsu.edu, or Dr. James Conway, Co-Chair, CCSU Human Studies Council at (860) 832-3107. email ConwayJ@ccsu.edu. Or you may contact the HSC Administrator, CCSU Human Studies Council at hsc@ccsu.edu. You can also contact UCONN's IRB at 860-486-8802.

Interested in participating in the student focus group?

If you would like to participate in the student focus group, please fill in your contact information below. I will contact you in the following weeks to schedule the focus group.

Name:

Email:

Cell Phone:

Appendix L
Scheduling focus group (for students)

Dear (student name),

I am thrilled to be in touch with you again. As you may recall, I presented in your class [class name] about my research on criminal justice professors and you expressed an interest in taking part in the student focus group. Below you'll see a link to schedule the focus group. Through your participation, I will learn more about your experiences in a criminal justice program, your learning in class, and further understand how professors can improve their teaching.

The focus group will take approximately one-hour. Please know that your participation in this study is voluntary and if you choose to participate, you can withdraw at any time. All responses will remain confidential. Attached to this email is a copy of the informed consent form for your records. Please review this informed consent form at your earliest convenience and please let me know if you have any questions or concerns. I will also bring this consent form to the focus group meeting and will ask you at that time to review the form, sign it and return to me if you decide to participate in the student focus group. As previously stated, the focus group will be audio recorded and there will be a note taker present.

To schedule the focus group interview, please click the following link and take the doodle poll to determine the best time for all interested participants: [link to doodle poll]. This link will remain open until (date).

Please note that you will be asked to confirm that you are over 18 years old and a criminology/criminal justice student.

Thank you,

Joshua Abreu

Appendix M
Email to students confirming date, time, and location of focus group

Dear [student's name]

Thank you for choosing to participate in the student focus group on criminology/criminal justice education. After reviewing everyone's availability, the focus group will take on [date] at [time] in [name of location on campus]. Please arrive ten minutes early so we can accommodate ourselves and I can answer any questions you may have. If you cannot make it, please feel free to contact me at your earliest convenience to notify me.

In this email, I have attached the consent form for the student focus group. Free feel to read it, sign it, and bring it with you to the scheduled focus group. I will provide consent forms in person at the focus group and I will review the document as well as provide time for you to ask questions, read the consent form, and sign it prior to starting the focus group. If you have any questions at any time during this process, please do not hesitate to contact me at Joshua.abreu@uconn.edu or at (978) 809-2456.

Thank you again for deciding to join us. Your insights can make some meaningful contributions to what we know about criminology/criminal justice education.

See you soon,

Joshua Abreu

Appendix N
Consent Form for Participation in Student Focus Group

Consent Form for Participation in Student Focus Group

Study Title: Transformative Pedagogy in Higher Education:
A Multi-Case Study of Criminology and Criminal Justice (CCJ) Professors

Principal Investigator: Joshua Abreu – Doctoral Candidate, UCONN
Phone: (978) 809-2456
Email: Joshua.abreu@uconn.edu

Faculty Supervisor/Advisor: Dr. Milagros Castillo-Montoya, Assistant Professor, UCONN
Phone: (860) 486-3250
Email: milagros.castillo-montoya@uconn.edu

Introduction

You are invited to participate in a research study about criminology and criminal justice professors teaching at four-year public universities. More specifically, this is a study on understanding how professors' beliefs and actions can enable them to learn about, enact, and prioritize their teaching. I also want to better understand how professors view their capacity to teach and how might universities and academic disciplines better support professors' teaching development. Please note you have to be 18 years old or older to participate in this study.

Why is this study being done?

We know little about how criminology and criminal justice educators teach the subject matter and develop their teaching skills. This study is being done to better understand how professors learn about, enact, and prioritize their teaching in ways that can enhance student learning and support professors' career development. Also, the study is being done to gain a better understanding of what may support or hinder professors' teaching development.

What are the study procedures? What will I be asked to do?

Participate in a student focus group

This informed consent form also applies to the student focus group. To participate, you need to be at least 18 years old. The purpose of a focus group is to understand people's perspectives on a shared experience such as your enrollment in this criminology/criminal justice course. I will email and text all students that fill out the doodle poll with the final decision about the date, time, and location of focus group. I will also send a reminder email and text the week of the scheduled focus group. Please note I will not inform your professor whether or not you are participating in the focus group.

The focus group will consist of other students from the same class and the questions will be about your experiences in your academic program and in this specific class. Everyone that participates in the focus group will have opportunities to answer questions directly from me, hear other students' responses, and/or discuss among each other. I will audio record and facilitate the focus group, while my colleague takes notes on our conversation. You can stop participating at any time during the focus group. The student focus group should take approximately one hour to complete.

Complete demographic questionnaire

The students who participate in the focus group will be asked to complete a demographic questionnaire. The questionnaire will have questions on age, race, gender, college credits, and other questions that may help me further understand your experiences. You will be asked to state your name throughout the focus group and in the questionnaire in order to match your focus group comments to demographic information. You may participate in the focus group and refuse to complete this questionnaire.

What are the risks or inconveniences of the study?

Conversations that occur in the focus group may be similar to those that you have when speaking to others about your schooling. There may be times when you will be asked to reflect on your own identities and how they inform your learning and this may mean there will be times when you feel more vulnerable than you ordinarily would discussing your education. Also, you will hear your classmates' responses to the questions and it may feel uncomfortable if those responses contradict your ideas about criminal justice or education, more generally. The researcher is mindful to create a supportive environment where all participants can engage in such conversations constructively and respectfully. In addition, you will be observed in your class. Some discomfort may arise from being observed engaging in class discussions. Lastly, if you participate in the focus group, then I may contact you afterward to clarify what was said during the focus group.

What are the benefits of the study?

The study may benefit you directly by providing you with opportunities to connect with other criminology/criminal justice students and discuss your education. This study will also benefit the field of higher education by creating an opportunity to advance what we know about how professors can use students' thoughts and reactions to enhance student learning in criminology/criminal justice education or other disciplines.

Will I receive payment for participation? Are there costs to participate?

You will not receive payment for your participation and there will be no cost to you.

How will my personal information be protected?

I will only use your name during data collection as way to maintain consistency on how your professors and/or peers refer to you. I will then change your name with a pseudonym (a made up name that will be used to protect your real identity) in all the places where your real name is present such as my field notes and focus group transcripts. I will keep all study records (including any codes and pseudonyms) locked in a secure location. A master key that links names and codes will be maintained in a separate and secure location. The master key and audiotapes will be destroyed after 5 years. Other study records (i.e. completed surveys with identifiable information removed) will be kept indefinitely. All electronic files (e.g., database, spreadsheet, etc.) containing identifiable information will be password protected. Any computer hosting such files will also have password protection to prevent access by unauthorized users. I will be the only person with access to the passwords. Any documents saved on shared online files will require a login and password. Data that will be shared with others will be coded as described above to help protect your identity.

At the conclusion of this study, I may publish or present the findings. Information will be presented in summary format and you will not be identified by your real name in any publications or presentations. I will do my best to protect the confidentiality of the information I gather from you but I cannot guarantee 100% confidentiality. Your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be

made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. It is possible that all recordings will be transcribed by a third party that ensure confidentiality.

You should also know that the UConn Institutional Review Board (IRB) and Research Compliance Services may inspect study records as part of its auditing program, but these reviews will only focus on the researchers and not on your responses or involvement. The IRB is a group of people who review research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research participants.

Can I stop being in the study and what are my rights?

You do not have to be in this focus group or study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. During class observations, I will not take notes on anyone that decides not to participate. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate. Also, you do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer.

Whom do I contact if I have questions about the study?

Take as long as you like before you make a decision. I will be happy to answer any questions you have about this study. If you have further questions about this project or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact me, Joshua Abreu by email at Joshua.abreu@uconn.edu or by phone at (978) 809-2456.

This research project has been reviewed and approved by the CCSU Human Studies Council as well as by UCONN's Institutional Review Board (IRB). If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or if you have a research related complaint please contact Dr. Laura Bowman, Co-Chair, CCSU Human Studies Council at (860) 832-3118, e-mail Bowman@ccsu.edu, or Dr. James Conway, Co-Chair, CCSU Human Studies Council at (860) 832-3107. email ConwayJ@ccsu.edu. Or you may contact the HSC Administrator, CCSU Human Studies Council at hsc@ccsu.edu. You can also contact UCONN's IRB at 860-486-8802.

Documentation of Consent:

I have read this form regarding the presented study. Its general purposes, the particulars of involvement and possible risks and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. I understand that I can withdraw at any time. My signature indicates my consent to participate in this study and also indicates that I have received a copy of this consent form.

Participant Signature

Print Name:

Date: _____

Signature of Person
Obtaining Consent

Print Name:

Date: _____

Appendix O
Student Focus Group Protocol

Thank you for joining me today. I really appreciate the extra time you have taken from your busy schedule to chat about your criminal justice education. This is a focus group about your experiences as criminal justice students. Focus group is a specialized group interview that is used to learn about how a particular set of individuals think and react to a shared experience. In this case, I'm interested in your experiences as criminology/criminal justice students. The questions will be on your experiences studying criminology/criminal justice, and your thoughts about the course and your professor [Professor's name]. This focus group can provide some good information about an important part of education, which is the way students' think about and react to the course. I will serve as the facilitator of the focus group and guide the discussion, while also providing opportunities for the group to talk among yourselves.

I will audio record this conversation and [name of note taker] will take observational notes on things we say and do during our time in the focus group. In order to know who is speaking in the audio recording, make sure to say your name before answering any questions or responding to me or your peers. Please keep in mind that this conversation may, at times, get uncomfortable and you may feel vulnerable. I will be mindful of this and take steps to create a supportive space that can encourage you all to share your thoughts and feelings in a constructive way so we can learn more about criminology/criminal justice education. Everyone here is invited to join the conversation. Please know that you if you do not want to answer a specific question, you do not have to. If you ever want to say something, but want me to pause the recorder, I can do that as well.

Does anyone have any questions before I ask the first question? [answer any questions form students].

About professor	RQs
<i>I would like to ask you about your professor [name of professor]. What stands out most about [name of professor]'s teaching?</i> Follow-ups: What have you learned so far in the course? How has this helped you further understand criminal justice?	2, 3
About course content	
<i>I would now like to ask about the topics you have discussed in class. What topics in [course name] do you consider important?</i> Follow-up: What about [most popular response] makes it important to you? What about [least popular response] makes it important to you? What can your professor do to make teaching [topic they mention] better?	2
<i>I also see that you had lessons on [course content relevant to transformative pedagogy]. What are your thoughts about learning about [topic relevant to transformative pedagogy]?</i> Follow-ups: [If not mentioned] What have you learned about [essence of course content (i.e. race and inequality)] in the criminal justice system?	2

About teaching strategies	RQs
<p><i>I would now like to ask about strategies Professor [name of professor] uses to teach the course. These strategies can range from exams to classroom discussions to field trips. What strategies in [course name] have you enjoyed most?</i></p> <p>Follow-up: What about [most popular strategy] do you enjoy? What is it about [least mentioned, but relevant strategy] that you enjoy? How has it helped you learn about criminal justice?</p>	2, 3
<p>[If not mentioned]: <i>I see that your professor uses [teaching strategy relevant to transformative pedagogy]. What are your thoughts about [the teaching strategy]?</i></p> <p>Follow-up: How has [the strategy] impacted the way you learn in this class?</p>	2
General	RQs
These are all the questions I have. Does anyone have anything more to add before we end the focus group?	
<p><i>This completes our focus group interview. Thanks again for volunteering your time to participate and sharing your experiences. You should be proud for contributing to criminal justice education. Good luck in finishing up your degrees.</i></p>	

Appendix P
Student Demographic Questionnaire

Student Demographic Questionnaire	Student Name:
<p>Age:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Under 18</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 18-19</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 20-21</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 22-24</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 25 and above____(specify)</p>	<p>How many college credits do you have?_____</p> <p>What is your major?_____</p> <p>What job would you like to get once you graduate?</p>
<p>Sex:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Female</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Male</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Not listed_____(specify)</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Prefer not to respond</p>	<p>Gender:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Woman</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Man</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Not listed_____(specify)</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Prefer not to respond</p>
<p>Race/Ethnicity (check all that apply):</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Black</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Asian/Pacific Islander</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Native American/American Indian</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> White</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Not Listed_____(specify)</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Prefer not to respond</p>	<p>Are you Hispanic/Latino/a/x?</p> <p>Yes____ No____ Prefer not to respond____</p> <p>What is your ethnicity/origins?</p> <p>_____</p>
<p>Are you a Pell Grant recipient?</p> <p>Yes____ No____ Please not to respond____</p>	<p>Do either of your parents or guardians have a college degree? Yes____ No____ Prefer to not respond____</p> <p>Please specify the kind of degree_____ (Associates, Bachelor, Master, Doctorate, etc.)</p>

Appendix Q
Interview Protocol 2 of 2

General	RQ
<p><i>Thank you again for being willing to participate in this second interview. You have previously consented to allowing me to record our interviews. Is it ok with you if I record this interview as well? (wait for answer). In this interview, I will ask you questions about things that might have come up in the first interview and during my class observations. Please keep in mind that I am not using my class observation to judge your teaching, but to gain a better understanding of your experience. I would like to start by asking you some general questions about your teaching this past semester. My first question is...</i></p> <p>How did this semester go? Anything stand out that you want to share? Follow-up: How do you see [answer to previous question] impacting your future teaching?</p>	1-3
<p><i>Now, I would like to ask you about how you prepared for this course.</i></p> <p>How did you go about constructing the syllabus for this course [name of observed course]? Follow-up: How do you see the syllabus helping your students learn the course content? What would you change in this syllabus? How do you see [repeat the change they mentioned] helping students learn?</p>	1-3
<p>I would like to ask you some clarifying questions about our first interview. [interview 1-based questions. The position of these questions may change depending on the topic so they flow more seamlessly with other questions]</p>	1-3
Beliefs on professional agency	
<p><i>In a variety of fields, the term social justice is being used to refer to a number of things.</i></p> <p>What does social justice mean to you? Follow-up: If someone were to say that professors in higher education have a responsibility to address social justice, what would you say?</p>	1, 3
<p><i>I would like to ask you about the criminal justice field.</i> What do you think is the role of criminal justice professionals in addressing social justice within the criminal justice system? Follow-up: Do you include this into your course {name of observed course}? If yes: In what ways? If not: What keeps you from including this into your course?</p>	1
Beliefs on student learning	

<p><i>Regarding other learning goals, How did it go with your students meeting the learning goals in the course I observed this semester?</i></p> <p>Follow-up: At what point did you know that the learning goals were being achieved? What do you think contributed to this?</p> <p>[For learning goals that were not achieved] What makes you think students did not do well with meeting the learning goals? What do you think contributed to this?</p>	1-3
<p>How do you think your students' identities in the course I observed impact your ability to have students meet the learning goals?</p> <p>[If students' identities do not impact their teaching] Are there other aspects of the students that impact your teaching? If yes, please explain. How does this inform your teaching?</p>	1, 3
Enacting teaching strategies	
<p><i>I would like to ask you some questions about what I saw during my class observations.</i></p> <p>[add question based on class observations]</p>	2
Learning about teaching	
<p><i>I would now like to ask you about how you have learned about some of the teaching I observed this semester. [Pick a lesson from my class observations related to transformative pedagogy]. Can you please tell me how you learned how to design and execute this lesson?</i></p>	1-3
<p>What other resources in or outside of [name of institution] do you use to help you grow as a teacher?</p> <p>Follow-up: How can your institution better support teaching development?</p>	2
<p>If a colleague asked for a book on teaching criminal justice what would tell them to read?</p> <p>Follow-up: What about this book makes it a good choice for teaching? How did you learn about this book?</p>	1-3
Prioritizing teaching	
<p>I'm going to present a hypothetical situation. You have signed up to be a long-term mentor to a new, junior faculty. What important advice would you provide to your mentee about balancing their multiple responsibilities as a new professor?</p> <p>Follow-up: How do you see this advice impacting their teaching?</p>	1-3
General	
<p>Is there anything else you would like to add about teaching criminal justice or anything else you find informative to your teaching?</p>	1-3
<p><i>That completes the interview. Thank you for the time you have dedicated to this study. I know that it required extra planning in your part and I am grateful that you have been generous with your time. I may be in contact soon to clarify some questions that I may have about this interview. On a later date, I will contact you as I start developing themes that emerge from my analyses. I will share these themes with you to check the extent in</i></p>	

<i>which you feel they represent your experiences as a criminology/criminal justice professor. Thanks again.</i>	
--	--

Appendix R

Thank You Letter to Professors

Dear [faculty name]

Thank you for participating in this case study on your experiences learning and teaching criminology/criminal justice. This study would not have been possible if it was not for your generosity with opening your classroom to me, taking part in multiple interviews, and sharing your course material. This may have caused you to feel vulnerable at times, but I am confident that your participation will provide meaningful contributions to how we understand the experiences of criminology and criminal justice faculty and how to better support their teaching efforts.

This concludes your participation in this study. I will contact you on a later date to share the finished dissertation.

Again, thank you for your time and contribution.

Joshua Abreu

Appendix S CITI and NIH Certificates

COLLABORATIVE INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING INITIATIVE (CITI PROGRAM) COURSEWORK REQUIREMENTS REPORT*

* NOTE: Scores on this Requirements Report reflect quiz completions at the time all requirements for the course were met. See list below for details. See separate Transcript Report for more recent quiz scores, including those on optional (supplemental) course elements.

• **Name:** Joshua Abreu (ID: 5029868)
• **Email:** joshua.abreu@uconn.edu
• **Institution Affiliation:** University of Connecticut - Storrs & Regional Campuses (ID: 623)
• **Institution Unit:** Educational Leadership
• **Phone:** 9788092456

• **Curriculum Group:** CITI Conflicts of Interest
• **Course Learner Group:** Conflicts of Interest
• **Stage:** Stage 1 - Stage 1

• **Report ID:** 17124386
• **Completion Date:** 09/06/2015
• **Expiration Date:** 09/05/2019
• **Minimum Passing:** 80
• **Reported Score*:** 80

REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE MODULES ONLY	DATE COMPLETED	SCORE
CITI Conflict of Interest Course - Introduction (ID: 15177)	09/06/15	No Quiz
Financial Conflicts of Interest: Overview, Investigator Responsibilities, and COI Rules (ID: 15070)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Institutional Responsibilities as They Affect Investigators (ID: 15072)	09/06/15	3/5 (60%)

For this Report to be valid, the learner identified above must have had a valid affiliation with the CITI Program subscribing institution identified above or have been a paid Independent Learner.

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Collaborative Institutional
Training Initiative
at the University of Miami

COLLABORATIVE INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING INITIATIVE (CITI PROGRAM)

COURSEWORK TRANSCRIPT REPORT**

** NOTE: Scores on this Transcript Report reflect the most current quiz completions, including quizzes on optional (supplemental) elements of the course. See list below for details. See separate Requirements Report for the reported scores at the time all requirements for the course were met.

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• **Curriculum Group:** CITI Conflicts of Interest
• **Course Learner Group:** Conflicts of Interest
• **Stage:** Stage 1 - Stage 1

• **Report ID:** 17124386
• **Report Date:** 09/07/2015
• **Current Score**:** 80

REQUIRED, ELECTIVE, AND SUPPLEMENTAL MODULES	MOST RECENT	SCORE
CITI Conflict of Interest Course - Introduction (ID: 15177)	09/06/15	No Quiz
Financial Conflicts of Interest: Overview, Investigator Responsibilities, and COI Rules (ID: 15070)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Institutional Responsibilities as They Affect Investigators (ID: 15072)	09/06/15	3/5 (60%)

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- **Institution Unit:** Educational Leadership
- **Phone:** 9788092456

- **Curriculum Group:** Human Subjects Research Course
- **Course Learner Group:** Social/Behavioral Research
- **Stage:** Stage 1 - Basic Course
- **Description:** This course is suitable for Investigators and staff conducting SOCIAL/BEHAVIORAL RESEARCH with human subjects.

- **Report ID:** 17124383
- **Completion Date:** 09/07/2015
- **Expiration Date:** 09/06/2018
- **Minimum Passing:** 80
- **Reported Score*:** 86

REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE MODULES ONLY	DATE COMPLETED	SCORE
Belmont Report and CITI Course Introduction (ID: 1127)	09/06/15	2/3 (67%)
History and Ethical Principles - SBE (ID: 490)	09/06/15	4/5 (80%)
Defining Research with Human Subjects - SBE (ID: 491)	09/06/15	3/5 (60%)
The Federal Regulations - SBE (ID: 502)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Assessing Risk - SBE (ID: 503)	09/06/15	4/5 (80%)
Informed Consent - SBE (ID: 504)	09/06/15	4/5 (80%)
Privacy and Confidentiality - SBE (ID: 505)	09/06/15	4/5 (80%)
Records-Based Research (ID: 5)	09/07/15	3/3 (100%)
Populations in Research Requiring Additional Considerations and/or Protections (ID: 16680)	09/07/15	4/5 (80%)
Research with Children - SBE (ID: 507)	09/07/15	5/5 (100%)
Research in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools - SBE (ID: 508)	09/07/15	5/5 (100%)
Internet-Based Research - SBE (ID: 510)	09/07/15	5/5 (100%)
Avoiding Group Harms - U.S. Research Perspectives (ID: 14080)	09/07/15	3/3 (100%)
Vulnerable Subjects - Research Involving Workers/Employees (ID: 483)	09/07/15	4/4 (100%)
Hot Topics (ID: 487)	09/07/15	No Quiz
Conflicts of Interest in Research Involving Human Subjects (ID: 488)	09/07/15	4/5 (80%)
University of Connecticut (ID: 972)	09/07/15	7/9 (78%)

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COLLABORATIVE INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING INITIATIVE (CITI PROGRAM)
COURSEWORK TRANSCRIPT REPORT**

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- **Report Date:** 09/07/2015
- **Current Score**:** 86

REQUIRED, ELECTIVE, AND SUPPLEMENTAL MODULES	MOST RECENT	SCORE
History and Ethical Principles - SBE (ID: 490)	09/06/15	4/5 (80%)
Defining Research with Human Subjects - SBE (ID: 491)	09/06/15	3/5 (60%)
Belmont Report and CITI Course Introduction (ID: 1127)	09/06/15	2/3 (67%)
Records-Based Research (ID: 5)	09/07/15	3/3 (100%)
The Federal Regulations - SBE (ID: 502)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Assessing Risk - SBE (ID: 503)	09/06/15	4/5 (80%)
Informed Consent - SBE (ID: 504)	09/06/15	4/5 (80%)
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Internet-Based Research - SBE (ID: 510)	09/07/15	5/5 (100%)
Vulnerable Subjects - Research Involving Workers/Employees (ID: 483)	09/07/15	4/4 (100%)
Hot Topics (ID: 487)	09/07/15	No Quiz
Conflicts of Interest in Research Involving Human Subjects (ID: 488)	09/07/15	4/5 (80%)
Avoiding Group Harms - U.S. Research Perspectives (ID: 14080)	09/07/15	3/3 (100%)
Populations in Research Requiring Additional Considerations and/or Protections (ID: 16680)	09/07/15	4/5 (80%)
University of Connecticut (ID: 972)	09/07/15	7/9 (78%)

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- **Phone:** 9788092456

- **Curriculum Group:** Social and Behavioral Responsible Conduct of Research
- **Course Learner Group:** Same as Curriculum Group
- **Stage:** Stage 1 - Basic Course
- **Description:** This course is for investigators, staff and students with an interest or focus in **Social and Behavioral** research. This course contains text, embedded case studies AND quizzes.

- **Report ID:** 17124385
- **Completion Date:** 09/06/2015
- **Expiration Date:** N/A
- **Minimum Passing:** 85
- **Reported Score*:** 98

REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE MODULES ONLY	DATE COMPLETED	SCORE
Responsible Conduct of Research (RCR) Course Introduction (ID: 1522)	09/06/15	No Quiz
Research Misconduct (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16604)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Data Management (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16600)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Authorship (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16597)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Peer Review (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16603)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Mentoring (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16602)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Using Animal Subjects in Research (RCR-Basic) (ID: 13301)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Conflicts of Interest (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16599)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Collaborative Research (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16598)	09/06/15	4/5 (80%)
Research Involving Human Subjects (RCR-Basic) (ID: 13566)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Responsible Conduct of Research (RCR) Course Conclusion (ID: 1043)	09/06/15	No Quiz

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COURSEWORK TRANSCRIPT REPORT**

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- **Course Learner Group:** Same as Curriculum Group
- **Stage:** Stage 1 - Basic Course
- **Description:** This course is for investigators, staff and students with an interest or focus in **Social and Behavioral** research. This course contains text, embedded case studies AND quizzes.

- **Report ID:** 17124385
- **Report Date:** 09/07/2015
- **Current Score**:** 98


REQUIRED, ELECTIVE, AND SUPPLEMENTAL MODULES	MOST RECENT	SCORE
Responsible Conduct of Research (RCR) Course Introduction (ID: 1522)	09/06/15	No Quiz
Using Animal Subjects in Research (RCR-Basic) (ID: 13301)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Research Involving Human Subjects (RCR-Basic) (ID: 13566)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Authorship (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16597)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Collaborative Research (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16598)	09/06/15	4/5 (80%)
Conflicts of Interest (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16599)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Data Management (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16600)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Mentoring (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16602)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Peer Review (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16603)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Research Misconduct (RCR-Basic) (ID: 16604)	09/06/15	5/5 (100%)
Responsible Conduct of Research (RCR) Course Conclusion (ID: 1043)	09/06/15	No Quiz

For this Report to be valid, the learner identified above must have had a valid affiliation with the CITI Program subscribing institution identified above or have been a paid Independent Learner.


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Certificate of Completion



The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **Joshua Abreu** successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants."



Date of Completion: 05/14/2018

Certification Number: 2818788



Appendix T
Sample of reducing data into analytic statements

Code	How does [the selected code] show up for Dr. Sanders?	How does [the selected code] show up for Dr. Taylor?	How does [the selected code] show up for Dr. Park?	Summary of similarities across all cases	Analytic Statement
(Belief) A sense of responsibility	<p>In regards to her instructions, Dr. Sanders believes that learning is enhanced when she establishes a dialogic relationship with her students. According to her, she does so through her in-depth feedback on students' writing assignments and opportunities to hand in drafts (I1, ref. 5). B</p> <p>She also believes she is responsible for creating a learning environment where all students feel comfortable to engage, which to her, means that she needs to take a neutral approach during class discussions. She believes her neutrality can encourage students with various different viewpoints to express themselves and create a dialogue around different perspectives. (I1) B</p>	<p>In regards to her instructions, Dr. Taylor says she has a responsibility to slow down the lesson if she picks up that the students do not understand a basic or fundamental concept that she believes they should've learned before their senior year (I2, ref. 1). B</p> <p>Dr. Taylor said she is "conscientious" about students' disclosed backgrounds and how the course content may trigger those students. She said, "there's a real fine line between being honest and forthright, and talking about a sensitive subject (I2, ref. 2). B</p>	<p>Dr. Park surveys class to check on students' content knowledge and then adjust accordingly. (CON - Theory). B</p> <p>Dr. Park said he's responsible to challenge students, but acknowledges that they may have knowledge gaps stemming from students' time in previous schools (i.e. community colleges); therefore, he feels he needs to recognize those gaps and intervene as needed (CON - Survey). B</p>	<p>In regards to their instructions, all professors seem to feel responsible to adjust their teaching according to their students' needs and/or preferences at the moment They say they gauge their knowledge and interests through conversations and assignments and then adjust their lessons. B</p>	<p>Professors believe they need to expose students to unknown areas of CCJ.</p>

Appendix U
Chain of evidence

Code	Code Definition	How does [the selected code] show up for Dr. Sanders ?	Summary - What do these 3 cases together tell me about [the selected code]?
(Enacting) Ensuring compliance with coursework	Professor provides classroom management that can help students stay on task with their coursework and successfully complete the course.	<p>Interview data (i.e., I1, I2): Dr. Sanders says she only knows if her lower-level students understand the content through occasional quizzes or through classroom discussions (I2, ref. 2). She said that adding journaling to these students may be too much work for them (I2, ref. 3). She hopes that the low stake quizzes can teach students that they have to come to the college classroom prepared to engage (I2, ref. 4). A, C</p> <p>To better ensure students come to class, Dr. Sanders stopped posting the lectures on Blackboard (I2, ref. 5). F</p> <p>Class Observation Notes (CON) - Theoretical Passes out essay/paper. Mentions some of the common feedback she gave to students: grammar, proofreading, Making sure to paraphrase (ref. 1). A</p> <p>When is the last reaction paper due? Right. Keep in mind that the next reaction paper is on theory and today we're talking about theory so today can be very helpful. (ref. 2, 3). A</p>	<p>Interview data: All professors say they use in-class assignments and/or quizzes to ensure students are reading and understanding the course materials. A</p> <p>All professors say they use multiple modes of instructions and different types of assignments to help students learn and retain and course content. B</p> <p>All professors say they depend on short writing assignments to help students "hone down their writing." C</p> <p>All professors seem to say they regularly try to make course expectations as simple and clear as possible. D</p> <p>Class Obs. Data All professors regularly remind their students about upcoming assignments, expectations, and provide general feedback on completed assignments/exams. A</p> <p>All professors assign daily and/or weekly assessments on the week's course content. B</p> <p>All professors met with students after class to</p>

			<p>discuss course expectations, concerns, and/or questions about course content. C</p> <p>All professors slow down lesson when they realize students may have a gap of knowledge, which can make upcoming lesson/concepts to understand. D</p>
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Appendix V
Dr. Sanders' journal questions

	Knowledge	Comprehension	Evaluation	Analysis	Synthesis	Leading
Real-world systemic issues	10	3	2	4	2	1
<i>Critical Questions</i>	7	3	2	2	1	1
Narratives from the field	6	0	1	1	0	0
<i>Critical Questions</i>	2	0	0	1	0	0
Students' prior knowledge	9	2	1	2	0	0
<i>Critical Questions</i>	6	2	0	1	0	0
Total Questions	25	5	4	7	2	1
<i>Total Critical Questions</i>	15	5	2	4	1	1